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ABSTRACT

Intended to provide information to employers who want to hire and train hard-to-employ, disadvantaged workers, this manual summarizes and distills the most important lessons learned from the experiences of a great many employers involved in the National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB) Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program and other non-government-connected company programs to hire and train disadvantaged persons. The manual includes discussions about: (1) benefits and problems in hiring hard-to-employ persons, (2) issues to be confronted when determining the feasibility of engaging in a hiring and training program for disadvantaged workers, (3) guidelines for recruiting, screening, and hiring persons once the manpower training program is underway, (4) conducting job-related education and skills training programs, (5) orienting supervisors to disadvantaged workers, (6) needed support services such as counseling, child care, transportation, financial advice, legal aid, and medical services, (7) conducting an upgrading program to prepare workers for advancement, and (8) conducting a training program by forming a consortium with other local companies. A glossary, bibliography of suggested readings on manpower training, and index are provided. (SB)

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Productive Employment Of The Disadvantaged:

Guidelines For Action

An
Operating Manual

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Productive Employment Of The Disadvantaged:

Guidelines For Action

An
Operating Manual

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By
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During the development of the data for this manual, HIRI staff held conferences in Los Angeles, San Francisco, Chicago and New York, at which urban affairs directors or their equivalent, with various job titles from various companies with JOBS Programs, came together to exchange thinking and experiences regarding better and poorer ways to deal with employment, training and upgrading of so-called disadvantaged persons. We are deeply grateful to them and to the many companies who invited our site visits in the data-gathering stage.

Significant contributions in the form of interview and research, writing, and editorial and administrative activities have been made by HIRI associates, project staff and consultants: Curt Aller, Eugene Cox, Kay Garrison, Gordon Gibb, Jesse Gordon, Molly Lewin, Jenny Terrell, Stephen Uslan, Judy Young. Evelyn Idelson and Arnold Harris organized and wrote the original draft of this manual, in collaboration with HIRI staff researchers and interviewers. Following the major project conference, a semi-final draft of the manual was prepared by Jules Cohn.

We must also acknowledge the artistic contributions of Robert W. Wheeler and Huerta Design Associates to the format and layout of this document.

❀

As part of this project, a volunteer group called the Regional Technical Assistance Task Force was formed, to assist JOBS Program companies and other companies in the Southern California area in their recruiting, training and upgrading activities of hard-to-employ persons. Their experiences also have enriched this manual. HIRI associate Eugene Cox recruited and coordinated the activities of the Task Force; the members' names and titles, and the companies which donated the members' services, follow on the next pages.

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The potential gains to your company are many:

- You can improve internal capabilities.
- You can strengthen corporate reputation.
- You can increase productivity.
- You can improve work force motivation.
- You can facilitate the solution of special employee problems that impair performance.
- You can develop more flexible and realistic recruitment and hiring practices.

Chapter II

PLANNING FOR PARTICIPATION: A GUIDE TO KEY ISSUES (pp. 13-28)

Company objectives should be explicit.

- Both short- and long-range benefits should be identified.
- Provision should be made for evaluating outcome of program in terms of these objectives.

The company should determine the feasibility of being involved in a manpower training program

- It should carefully assess its organizational capabilities and ability to make changes necessary for program success.
- It should make provision for good program staffing.
- It should be receptive to changing recruiting and hiring practices.
- It should offer genuine incentives.
- It should make certain it has work force acceptance of the program.
- It should obtain union cooperation.

The company must decide how much of the training it will do itself, and to what extent it will seek outside help.

Carrying out successful programs requires company commitment and an internal system of accountability.

- The commitment must be evident at the top management level and must be sustained for the duration of the program.
- Accountability and incentives can effectively overcome barriers to implementation.

Chapter III

RECRUITING, SCREENING AND HIRING (pp. 29-41)

Special efforts are required to reach out for trainees for your manpower program.

- Your target group should be selected realistically.
- A range of recruiting resources is available; they should be used advantageously.
- Recruiters should be carefully selected and trained.
- Proven techniques of outreach should be utilized.

Screening and hiring practices may deviate from those you customarily use.

- Special skill and sensitivity are required of the interviewer.
- The hazards and pitfalls of conventional testing should be avoided.
- Work sample testing is suggested as a valid screening device for this group of applicants; a number of other innovative approaches are being developed.

Chapter IV

ENTRY-LEVEL JOB TRAINING (pp. 43-64)

The objectives of a good training program should be to:

- Assimilate trainees into the work environment
- Help build potential for advancement
- Provide skills that lead to economic security

The two elements of entry-level job training are job-related education and skills training.

Job-related education should be individualized.

- It should be provided only to those trainees who need it.
- Skills should be related to job functions.
- Trainees should be grouped according to their educational needs.

All skills training should be constructed around a "success" model.

- Training plans should be individualized.
- Program structures should be flexible.
- Supervisors should be involved in training.
- The trainer/trainee ratio should be adequate for effective instruction.

Skills training can be either on-the-job training (OJT), vestibule training, or a combination of both.

- On-the-job training is often more convenient, less expensive, provides prompt worker motivation, and is most suitable for trainees who already have some fundamental skills.
- Vestibule training is particularly suitable for the trainee who requires individual attention, free from production pressures; it has the disadvantage of sometimes creating an artificial work environment.

Chapter V

ORIENTING SUPERVISORS (pp. 65-75)

Training skills acquired by supervisors in programs for the hard-to-employ can be expected to increase their effectiveness with all employees.

Management and supervisors should both perceive the special problems imposed on supervisors, and provisions should be made for dealing with them.

- Management should be willing to provide special time, production and monetary allowances as well as special training to supervisors.
- Supervisor's responsibilities vis-a-vis trainees should be clearly defined.
- Potential rivalry between supervisors and training staff should be recognized and neutralized.
- Supervisor's domain should be respected.

Many supervisors do not have explicit skills as trainers; these must be specifically developed.

Chapter VI

SUPPORT SERVICES (pp. 77-96)

Support services should be goal-oriented.

Support services should be individualized.

There are proven strategies for planning and implementing the major elements of support service programs:

- Orientation
- Counseling
- Child care, medical, dental, transportation
- Legal assistance
- Advice on money management

The relative advantages and disadvantages of subcontracting for support services should be assessed by the individual company.

Chapter VII

CONDUCTING UPGRADING PROGRAMS (pp 97-103)

Upgrading programs strengthen employee motivation and result in better retention rates.

The range of approaches to an upgrading program includes:

- Providing job ladders for entry-level employees
- Providing supplementary on-the-job training
- Supporting continuing education through scholarship or tuition funds
- Obtaining supervisory cooperation in the upgrading process
- Enhancing work content through job restructuring or job enrichment

Chapter VIII

FORMING A CONSORTIUM (pp. 105-119)

A consortium may be an advantageous course of action because:

- It centralizes specific services in the interest of efficiency.
- It enables smaller companies to participate in JOBS Programs.
- It provides a centrally supported manpower resource to the community.
- It provides flexibility and stability to a JOBS Program; the program is not at the mercy of employment conditions and labor requirements of any one company.
- It channels the efforts of the business community collaboratively rather than competitively.

These advantages may be offset when:

- Communications within the business community are limited
- Competition between participating companies is strong
- Job openings are not available on schedule
- Labor requirements of participating companies are not compatible

Reasoned and realistic decisions should be made in advance concerning leadership, allocation of responsibilities, procedures, location and financing.

Legal, financial and operational responsibilities of each participating company to the Department of Labor, to the subcontractor, and to each other should be clearly defined.

Trainees should be encouraged to identify themselves with their employers, not with the consortium.

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Chapter I

COMPANY INVOLVEMENT IN MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

This is a manual about hiring and training hard-to-employ, disadvantaged workers. It summarizes and distills the most important lessons learned from the experiences of a great many employers involved in the National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB) JOBS * Program as well as in other, non-government-connected company programs to hire and train disadvantaged persons. The objective is to make this information available to all employers who want to hire and train disadvantaged workers as effectively as possible.

This manual includes discussions about:

1. Company involvement in manpower development programs
2. Planning for participation: a guide to key issues
3. Recruiting, screening and hiring
4. Entry-level job training
5. Orienting supervisors
6. Support services
7. Conducting upgrading programs
8. Forming a consortium

While the principles and practices described herein were developed to deal with challenges posed by the employment of disadvantaged workers, companies have found many of these principles to be generally applicable to the entire work force.

WHO ARE THE DISADVANTAGED?

Many labels have been used to refer to the disadvantaged men and women for whom the JOBS Program was created. They have also been designated the hard-core unemployed, the hard-to-employ, the educationally or otherwise handicapped, and the culturally deprived ethnic minorities.

The JOBS Program considers the following sort of person to be disadvantaged:

> A person who is poor, ** unemployed or under-employed, and fits into at least one of the following categories:
>
> - School dropout
> - Faced with barriers to employment, such as lack of skills, a history of dependence on welfare, a record of arrest or imprisonment, or other barriers, including minority group membership
> - Under age 22 or over age 45
> - Physically, mentally, socially or emotionally handicapped

NAB provides an official, detailed definition (including the above characteristics) which designates people who are eligible for enrollment in the JOBS Program: Those who may be described by the special definition, but who are already fully employable (and do not need the extraordinary services provided by a JOBS Program), should be treated as normal hires. Available training slots should be reserved for those who require special attention.

*Job Opportunities in the Business Sector, a program jointly sponsored by the National Alliance of Businessmen and the Department of Labor (DOL).

**As defined in the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) Guidelines.

There are really many types of disadvantaged people with varying needs. For example:

- Women who were abandoned and forced to raise small children without the help of a husband are considered disadvantaged.
- Men and women with serious reading difficulties are considered disadvantaged.
- American Indians are often considered disadvantaged because of their cultural difficulties when they try to adapt to urban settings.
- People raised in rural areas who now reside in urban areas are considered disadvantaged if their job skills are not marketable in their new surroundings.

Disadvantaged people may lack work skills and work experience; many need only work opportunity and special training to overcome such handicaps.

- Others need a job and some counseling with regard to their personal problems and poor work habits.
- Others need a job and medical or dental care.
- Others need a job and assistance in locating and paying for child care facilities.
- Others need a job and help in boosting their morale.

ALL NEED A JOB.

That is where the JOBS Program comes in.

THE BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATION IN PROGRAMS TO HIRE AND TRAIN DISADVANTAGED WORKERS

Programs to hire the disadvantaged initially had the main purpose of providing opportunities to the many Americans trapped in the "culture of poverty" and traditionally excluded from employment, especially from quality jobs in the primary labor market. The tight labor market of 1966-1969 convinced many employers that it was to their advantage to learn to draw from disadvantaged groups in the labor pool — especially as they discovered that those workers could learn to perform at (or sometimes even exceed) work standards set by the regular work force. Other employers subject to government Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) regulations used these special manpower programs to achieve a record of compliance. And many companies, especially those with minority markets, participated to improve company image.

✱

Some companies wishing to make compliance with government equal opportunity requirements as meaningful as possible use the JOBS Program to prepare disadvantaged minority employees for skilled work. A large pharmaceutical company with severe needs for highly skilled labor and few opportunities for unskilled workers was first led, by participation in the JOBS Program, to re-analyze its job requirements and thus uncover many slots for people it had formerly screened out. By engaging these new employees in a training program, it not only was able to satisfy the government Equal Employment Opportunity requirement but also to fulfill the desires of its chief executive officer for an improved record in hiring and upgrading minority group members.

✱

NOTE: Illustrations of company experiences have been drawn from company statements made in their published reports or during the course of Human Interaction Research Institute's (HIRI) site visits. Other illustrations are drawn from published evaluation reports or the findings of research and demonstration projects. A booklet published by Lockheed-California Company, The First Year of Operation, February 1, 1970 to January 31, 1971, appears at the back of this manual and describes the innovative and highly successful operation of its Watts-Willowbrook Plant, which was established for the purpose of conducting a manpower program with a disadvantaged, inner city, unskilled, minority work force.

❀

A construction company reports that its participation in JOBS helped attract high quality new management personnel. The business school graduates it interviewed were interested in joining an organization concerned about social problems, and welcomed proof of a high commitment to equal opportunity.

❀

As employers attempted to modify their employment and training practices for the sake of disadvantaged hires, they found themselves developing improved internal capabilities, namely, a strengthened personnel function, more realistic hiring and personnel policies, training expertise, more skillful supervisors – in short, better utilization and development of their regular work force.

Their discovery should not be surprising. Most problems found in the group designated "disadvantaged" are not peculiar to them, but are shared by many in the general work force. One need only to consider physical and emotional problems, Monday morning hangovers and three-martini lunches to recognize that many in the regular work force are sometimes "disadvantaged." Others, because of lack of education or skill or because of language problems, may be disqualified for advancement, even though with training they might learn better jobs – a form of "disadvantage" similar to that faced by a high school dropout. Many of the differences between the "disadvantaged" and the regular work force are differences of degree, not kind. Many are "disadvantaged" only in the sense that they have been excluded from the regular work force (especially from good jobs) on the basis of race, social class membership or age – attributes not necessarily related to job performance or potential performance. In fact, many persons who qualify as "disadvantaged" have histories of relatively sustained employment. In Boston, for example, 75 percent of those qualifying had worked 20 weeks or more the previous year.* Similarly, many full-time workers qualify because they have been paid wages below the poverty level (in 1972, $1.60 per hour).

How are principles and practices developed in the course of these training programs relevant to general efforts to improve manpower utilization?

Increasing Productivity

If work forces are trained to be more skillful, to learn to use more efficient methods and machines, and at the same time to become better motivated in relation to their work, unit costs decrease because productivity increases. If productivity increases, it becomes possible to pay higher wages, provide increased incentives and attract a higher quality work force, while maintaining or improving the company's competitive position.

Many training practices developed during manpower programs for the disadvantaged are applicable to training employees in the regular work force. This manual provides guidelines for helping companies develop their capability to do:

SKILLS TRAINING
JOB-RELATED EDUCATION (JRE)

❀

A retail chain store in Northern California trained its disadvantaged workers for two weeks in a mobile unit with simulated check-out stands. When the trainees went on the job, managers found that in many respects they knew more than experienced employees. As a result, the company has moved toward a centralized training program for all new hires, putting

*Personal communication from Joseph C. Breiteneicher, Boston Director, National Alliance of Businessmen, February 1972.

them through similar simulated training. Regular employees are now trained in one week instead of two and now get the entire support and counseling services provided JOBS trainees.

❀

Chase Manhattan Bank trained disadvantaged hires for entry-level clerical posts and office machine skills up to bank teller. Presently the bank is setting up a vestibule training program for regular hires that will be modeled after the training program for the disadvantaged, including remediation, orientation, job skills and other elements derived in content from that training program.

❀

A spokesman for one of the major automobile manufacturers, in reviewing what his company had learned about employment practices for the JOBS Program – screening, training, upgrading and supervisory procedures, as well as management skills – reached the following conclusion: "What seems to be emerging from our recent concentrated attention on the hard-core is a realization that rather than devise special treatment for them, we really need to be applying the same enlightened practices to our whole work force. This realization may well be one of the greatest benefits of our preoccupation with supposed employment problems of special groups."

❀

Improving Work Force Motivation

Low motivation may be expressed directly in low quality work performance and low volume of output. Less directly, when workers "don't give a damn," their attitude is reflected in high turnover, absenteeism, labor-management friction, theft and destruction of company property. All of these symptoms can result in considerable losses to a company.

Motivation problems, particularly severe in recent years, are frequently attributed to the attitudes of special groups:

- The young, who seem less committed to work values than their parents and older siblings
- The alienated, who are disillusioned about contemporary society and reject working in ordinary work settings
- The disadvantaged, who have had little experience with or knowledge about the expectations of employers, especially in quality work settings

However, employers now appear to be finding that even their regular work forces frequently seem to lack motivation and to have reduced tolerance for the monotony, regimentation and dreariness that characterize many work settings.

❀

"Detroit knows a lot about building new cars, but there's a lot it doesn't know about the new young men building them. This failure to understand the men who do the work has meant, increasingly, failure to get the work done with maximum efficiency. The problem is particularly serious because the understanding gap, curiously reminiscent of the gaps between parents and children and between universities and students, faces off the

nation's biggest industry against a very substantial percentage of its workers.... The central fact about the new workers is that they are young and bring into the plants with them the new perspectives of American youth.... The new attitudes cut across racial lines. Both young blacks and young whites have higher expectations of the jobs they fill and the wages they receive and for the lives they will lead. They are restless, changeable, mobile, demanding, all traits that make for impermanence – and for difficult adjustment to an assembly line.... Absenteeism has risen sharply....Tardiness has increased....Complaints about quality are up sharply....Some assembly-line workers are so turned off... that they just walk away in mid-shift and don't even come back to get their pay for time they have worked (Gooding, 1970a)."

❀

"...all too many American workers – particularly young ones, who are supposed to be bubbling with energy and ambition – no longer give a damn... the evidence is strong that the traditional work ethic of the U.S. is showing signs of senility.

"This worker malaise has resulted in absenteeism rates as high as 20 percent on Fridays and Mondays in some automobile plants....Quality suffers and costs soar with inexperienced help – or due to outright sabotage. Blue-collar workers are not the only ones affected....

"...workers all too often find that...work is a totally unsatisfying experience....'In the old days, you used to start a job and you used to finish it. Now things have become so diversified you can't see your product; you start something and it goes through 50 million other hands before it's completed'....'Today's management doesn't have any compassion for the person that's down the line (Too Many U.S. Workers.... Newsweek, April 24, 1972).'"

❀

Recently, a few employers have tried experimentally to increase worker interest and motivation by reorganizing work and by reducing monotony through job enrichment and participative management. Additionally, they have tried to increase motivation by offering incentives for better performance: opportunities for advancement, increased responsibility, higher pay, career development and upgrading in connection with skills training.

❀

"What's to be done? 'I think the key is involvement in work,' says Arnold Judson, an organizational behavior specialist with Arthur D. Little, Inc. 'This ranges from keeping the worker informed of what's going on to actual participation in decision-making. It's a lot of crap to say that workers are slothful and indifferent today. It's just the opposite; they want to do satisfying work.'

"...Ford Motor...is experimenting with a 'team' approach to building some auto components with workers moving along the line and handling the project from start to finish. Chrysler Corp. has a similar job-enrichment program under way....Chicago's McDonald Corp. has sharply slashed its turnover rate (100% turnover every two years in office force) since moving into its ultramodern new headquarters...which features such fringe comforts as a 'think tank' (for) harrassed executives....

"...'In terms of international competition,' sums up U.S. Labor Department manpower expert Neal Herrick, 'we've ridden technology as

far as it will carry us. Now we need to apply some more human methods of management if we are to improve our productivity (Too Many U.S. Workers. . . . Newsweek, April 24, 1972).' "

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Recent experiences in manpower programs for disadvantaged workers have established the existence of a particularly strong connection between the quality of supervision and worker motivation and morale.

This manual discusses what has been learned about increasing worker motivation through:

SUPERVISORY TRAINING
UPGRADING
CAREER DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES

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A leading bank in San Francisco is among many companies which report that the supervisor training conducted for their disadvantaged program helped develop supervisory attitudes that are more people-oriented and less task-oriented, and that such attitudes produce benefits for all members of the work force and for the company.

❀

A large office equipment manufacturer and supplier places only severely disadvantaged people in its JOBS Program (people who have educational levels as low as second grade, prison records, poor work histories, etc.). This company provides an intensive 23-week vestibule training program, with strong counseling and support services. The trainee entry wage is slightly below the regular starting wage. Trainees know that they are being trained for well-paying jobs in a company which provides ample opportunities for advancement. The company reports (1971) that 92% of graduates of JOBS training programs conducted since 1968 are still on the job.

❀

Among the especially successful efforts were those of another company which had had a record of the lowest retention rate in its industry. After participating in the JOBS Program and finding a much higher retention rate among disadvantaged trainees who had been offered special training, the company changed its personnel and training policies to adapt some of what had been learned with the JOBS trainees to the entire work force – and reported achievement of highest retention rate in its industry.

❀

Entering a JOBS Program presented fewer new problems to one large metropolitan hospital than it might to other types of corporations, or even to certain other hospitals, because this institution was already accustomed to hiring disadvantaged people for entry-level jobs. It was also accustomed to training on many levels through highly developed training and instructional programs. It saw an opportunity, however, to beef up its training programs for entry-level positions. Reimbursement for training JOBS trainees led to a general upgrading of the training staff. The personnel department became more capable of providing better training for all regular employees, including improved orientation programs, on-the-job training (OJT), General Education Diploma (GED), licensed nurse training and technical training.

Their approach has also lifted the general level of career expectation among trainees and lower echelon employees to the point where many more than before are now seeking GED equivalency and enrollment in community colleges for those already possessing high school diplomas. GED is provided on trainees' and workers' own time, four days a week, after regular working hours.

Ameliorating Erratic and Impaired Performance Due to Special Problems of Individuals

Innumerable practical and personal problems can interfere with work performance because workers lack the resources and the knowledge necessary to cope with them. In some instances, workers have a life style that is incompatible with the expectations and requirements of work settings. But even workers with a traditional life style are vulnerable to the distractions of personal and practical problems. These include:

Physical illness
Emotional, behavioral and mental problems
Family problems
Alcoholism and drug abuse

Practical problems (such as):

Needs for child day care
Needs for transportation
Legal difficulties
Financial problems
Housing problems

Companies that have participated in the JOBS Program have learned that helping their employees deal with such problems has a positive effect on employee reliability and a generally salutory effect on morale. Helping, however, does not necessarily mean providing direct services by company-hired personnel or even by personnel engaged on a contractual basis. Companies that wish to be active in this area might do no more than provide information and counseling to help employees identify and gain access to relevant community resources, if such resources are available.

This manual discusses a variety of ways in which companies can offer:

SUPPORT SERVICES
COUNSELING

When regular employees of a large office equipment manufacturer reacted to the JOBS Program by asking, "What are you doing for us?" the company responded by developing a total training package in which every employee would have an opportunity for education and training leading to advancement. The lowest level employees – sweepers and cleaners – may now enter the JOBS Program and thereby become qualified for jobs as materials handlers, opening up a whole line of upward progression which did not exist in their previous jobs. English as a Second Language (ESL), a course developed for Puerto Rican JOBS trainees, is now open to all employees.

In addition, a course leading to the GED is now available at the plant site, open to all; a new training program to qualify for supervisor is offered, as well as special training programs for welfare mothers. Moreover, because transportation was a problem for JOBS trainees, the company chartered a bus to get them to its outlying plant. Chartered bus service is now available to all employees.

Counseling JOBS trainees on their personal problems proved so important in improving attendance and job performance that the company now provides counseling services which are available to all employees. The company has contracted with the local family service agency to provide a full-time caseworker at the plant site, available to help employees with personal, financial, legal, medical and similar problems and provide referral to community agencies.

In short, the company has found that the results from this total training and support service package have helped to develop more effective operation of its business.

Modifying Recruitment and Hiring Practices

Being able to draw from a broad labor pool and to use realistic hiring standards becomes especially important as the percentage of disadvantaged persons in the inner city manpower pool increases. According to one estimate, 30 percent of the available manpower pool will soon be comprised of disadvantaged persons, in many geographical areas. Most are employable with assistance. Many can be trained to do work from which they have traditionally been excluded.

Many companies can learn how to improve their ability to identify, hire and assimilate workers with a greater variety of personal characteristics and problems than they are used to dealing with.

This manual provides some principles, guidelines and suggestions about:

RECRUITING, SELECTING AND HIRING
ORIENTING NEW HIRES (TO FACILITATE ASSIMILATION INTO THE COMPANY)

SUMMARY OF BENEFITS AND PROBLEMS INVOLVED IN HIRING HARD-TO-EMPLOY PERSONS

When a company is interested in the question of whether to employ disadvantaged persons, the following are some of the benefits and problems that ought to be considered.

BENEFITS	PROBLEMS
1. Society in general and the business sector in particular have much to gain by trying to reduce feelings of alienation and concomitant hostility which are nurtured by joblessness, by not having a place or opportunity in the mainstream.	1. Social conscience and concern for people needs to be coupled with responsibility to stockholders, customers and employees. If hiring hard-to-employ persons cannot be "good business," the position of the business in a competitive society could be jeopardized.
2. The labor pool of the 70's will consist of about 30 percent disadvantaged people. By learning how to assimilate them with reimbursement from the government for extra costs involved in employing such persons, a company can gain skills that will reduce its normal hiring costs. Further, such learning (at government expense) is likely to result in improved supervisory skills which will benefit all employees and the company.	2. It requires more planning, skill and support service effort to assimilate hard-to-employ persons than to train the "cream of the available labor crop" – if one can find and hire that cream. There may be extra headaches in trying to train people who are likely to have more than the usual learning and adjustment problems. Also, a company needs to be careful that the regular work force doesn't get jealous of special efforts to support the disadvantaged.
3. Many companies have found that their labor turnover, with all its attendant costs and problems, becomes significantly reduced when they train low-skilled people, do not set up irrelevant educational standards, and provide upgrading opportunities for all personnel. Further, upgrading costs can be reduced by taking advantage of an upgrading contract with the Department of Labor, which will pay for extra costs over and above what is normally spent by the company.	3. Better educated, more "achievement motivated" people are likely to present higher potential for upgrading or learning new jobs, thus giving the company more flexibility in moving people around. For that reason, however, such people are more likely to quit (and thus increase turnover) if advancement is not soon forthcoming.
4. Compliance with federal Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) regulations may be achieved by participating in forceful commitment to a JOBS Program because of the offer of higher-grade employment.	4. Participating in a JOBS Program commits the company to hiring persons with some kinds of handicaps. It therefore must make special efforts (albeit worthwhile) to learn how to deal with such handicaps.
5. Participating in programs such as JOBS can provide an effective Affirmative Action plan, required in any operation scrutinized by the government.	5. Formal participation in an MA contract with the U.S. Department of Labor means writing and adhering to a plan; analyzing community makeup to determine hiring objectives, and still avoid "quotas"; also achieving stated goals on time.

6. As a company gains understanding and skill in developing the kind of climate, orientation and training to successfully assimilate special groups, it is likely to expand those practices to its entire work force, with the net result that productivity of all workers is likely to increase and labor costs may well be reduced.

7. Employees of companies involved in working with minority JOBS trainees learn more about minorities, have the opportunity to be helpful, and reduce personal prejudices.

8. Participating in a JOBS Program is likely to enhance a company's public image in many communities.

6. It takes sustained commitment, monitoring, patience and creative effort to get an organization and its supervisors to change their employment policies from deliberately screening out applicants with special problems, to recruiting them, screening them in and developing that kind of training expertise.

7. Whether first-hand experience in working closely with minorities will result in reducing prejudice will depend upon the nature and perception of that experience.

HOW TO USE THIS MANUAL

This manual is a distillation of what has been learned to date from programs to hire disadvantaged workers. It summarizes the insights, principles and practices which have made the more successful programs work well.

Part of the manual's intention is to stimulate examination of present manpower practices in terms of principles and updated practices which have been tested and found effective. The manual encourages thinking about and planning the use of manpower programmatically – that is, as a systematic effort which includes recruitment, assimilation into the company, training, supervisory practices and upgrading.

The practices described are not meant to be prescriptions. A few might be applied directly. But many are not generally applicable to both large and small businesses, to different kinds of business, to all kinds of organizations of work, to all company locations, or to all characteristics of persons in the available manpower pool. Thus, the practices cited are more likely to be suitable for adaptation than adoption.

Although the remainder of this manual is about employing disadvantaged workers, it has the more general goal of helping develop and use the resources of all employees.

APPENDIX A
TRAINING AND TECHNOLOGY (TAT)*

While TAT conducts training for the disadvantaged on a larger scale than most companies would need, many of the findings and general principles generated by six years of experience are relevant to most training programs.

"The original purpose of TAT was to demonstrate that industrial training capacity could be applied directly to institutional training of the disadvantaged. This purpose has been achieved and is manifest in the continuing program. As an Atomic Energy Commission (AEC) Industrial Training Center, TAT is designed primarily to meet contractor needs for skilled manpower through entry-level training and upgrading services. . .TAT has also demonstrated that it can contribute effectively to the realization of broader national objectives for more effective utilization of human resources. This has been accomplished in the continuing program through:

- Maintaining a ratio of 40 percent black and other minority trainees, as a step toward improving the position of minority group members in the labor force and helping to achieve equal employment opportunity goals;

- Giving priority in trainee recruitment to residents of federally designated "redevelopment" counties, thus providing for maximum interaction and mutual support between the economic development of depressed areas and the human-resource development needed to stimulate and sustain that growth; and

- Training up to 200 returning Vietnam veterans per year, under arrangements that provide for them to receive full GI educational benefits during the period of their TAT instruction.

"TAT training has been concentrated in skill and technical areas that evidence the greatest employment demand. Program objectives, in addition to the continuing program of entry-level preparation in these industrial occupations, have been to develop satellite training arrangements with industries and agencies wishing to use the TAT training facilities and services; to experiment with upgrading industrial employees in dead-end jobs and to fill vacancies at higher skill and technical levels; and to continue developmental work that will increase effectiveness in all parts of the employment process.

"Through 1971-72, 2,000 previously underemployed or unemployed and disadvantaged persons have been trained by TAT and placed in high-skill industrial jobs. Studies show an 88 percent retention. . . through the training period. . . . The overall placement record is 95 percent of the graduates, and retention rates on the job approach that percentage. Through the first five years of the program, trainee records show the following averages:

	1966-68	1969	1970	1971
Employed at entry into TAT*	58.2%	27.7%	29.6%	38.4%
Average wage before entry	$2126/yr	$936/yr	$1061/yr	$1453/yr
Average starting wage on initial job after graduation	$5928/yr	$6302/yr	$6427/yr	$6540/yr
Increase of post- TAT wage over pre- TAT wage	$3802/yr	$5366/yr	$5366/yr	$5087/yr
Employed in at least one job since graduation	99.3%	97.4%	94.3%	96.3%

*Includes part-time and temporary employment.

*Begun in 1966 as an experimental and demonstration program conducted at the U. S. Atomic Energy Commission's Oak Ridge Y-12 Plant by Oak Ridge Associated Universities and the Nuclear Division, Union Carbide Corporation.

"On the basis of (these) figures, the dollar investment in training is returned to the government by the trainee through increased federal tax payments. . .within four to five years – not to mention other direct and indirect economic and social benefits to the individual, to industry, and to the community.

"Benefits accrue to the trainee not only in increased earning power but also in ways related to the quality of life. These have been documented in a TAT study on The Effect of a Manpower Training Program on the Personal Lives of its Graduates (Oak Ridge Associated Universities, November 1970), which shows a significantly increased interest and participation in political, social, financial and religious activities.

"Benefits have also been reported by Union Carbide in terms of:

1. In-depth involvement of numerous industrial personnel in instructional and supervisory positions in their skill areas;
2. Employment of persons who otherwise would have been screened out of normal employment processes; and
3. Upgrading the general training capability and interdepartmental cooperation within the plant.

"(The) president of the Nuclear Division states, 'Many Nuclear Division employees have participated in instructional and supervisory duties through planned rotation from their regular jobs. These employees have returned to their regular jobs with a new awareness of the problems of the disadvantaged. Their understanding and willingness to help have contributed significantly to the ease with which TAT graduates have been accepted into the plant's work force.'

"He continues, 'Improved working relationships have developed. . .the internal cooperation of all the plant departments has served to upgrade and enrich the plant's overall training capability. Organized labor cooperates closely in recruiting, assisting in training, evaluating course content, and providing representatives for the project's advisory committee. New working relationships have also been developed with local, state, and federal government agencies. . .

" 'Our experience with TAT has proved many things. . .by working together, industrial, educational, and governmental training resources can constitute a potent force for human resource development. . .I feel it is a fundamental social responsibility of business and industry to make a positive contribution to the plight of our disadvantaged citizens. It also makes good economic sense (Oak Ridge Associated Universities. Training & Technology: An Industry/Education Partnership. . . . 1972).' "

Chapter II

PLANNING FOR PARTICIPATION: A GUIDE TO KEY ISSUES

This chapter discusses some of the main issues which should be confronted when a company is deciding whether it is feasible to engage in a hiring and training program for disadvantaged workers.

Such a program has an impact throughout an organization from its inception. If management's motivation includes an honest desire to help the people and the business, its investment in staff planning time and the assignment of program responsibility to one of its most capable executives is likely to bring a sizable return. The assignment signals that the organization is committed to the program at its highest levels.

A recent Conference Board study (Janger, 1972) of hundreds of JOBS training programs concluded that there was a consistent relationship between trainee retention and the degree to which programs were carefully planned and managed.

Although past experience shows that larger companies in general have done better than smaller ones, a company does not have to be large to have a successful training program. The personal, supportive atmosphere of some small and medium-size companies, especially those with good morale, can get constructive results even with relatively simple programs. Such companies frequently have greater flexibility in personnel policies, worker assignment and job structuring, all of which contribute to program success.

ESTABLISHING COMPANY OBJECTIVES

No matter how committed to a program top-level management may be, footdragging, delays, excuse-making and vacillation at middle-management levels and below can sabotage its implementation. Many companies have discovered that merely announcing plans to participate in a manpower training program arouses anxiety, especially when the objectives are not made clear and when the proposed activities (in-house training) and prospective hires (disadvantaged members of minority groups) are unfamiliar to regular employees. Stating explicit objectives can clarify what might otherwise be an ambiguous, psychologically disturbing prospect. Furthermore, companies which are accountable to stockholders find it advantageous to list reasonable business objectives for a program to hire disadvantaged workers.

Explicit objectives also provide a means for making specific a company's new expectations of its personnel, establishing a basis for accountability procedures and performance incentives.

Establishing explicit program objectives should involve personnel from all levels and units of the company who will be affected by the program and take part in its implementation. Here is a simple outline for a statement of objectives:

1. What short-term benefits does the company want from the program?

   These tend to be the direct benefits, related to current needs such as:

   - Filling job openings
   - Developing worker skills, quality and output
   - Upgrading present employees

- Meeting Equal Employment Opportunity or Affirmative Action criteria
- Reducing turnover and absenteeism
- Increasing productivity

These goals apply primarily to disadvantaged hires and are amenable to (relatively) objective performance measurements such as:

- Hiring and retention data
- Performance appraisal (production and quality)
- Absence and lateness data
- Upgrading statistics and promotability evaluations
- Pay scales attained in specified time intervals

Measurement should be against the same standards as would be applied to the regular work force.

2. What long-range benefits does the company hope for?

Companies experienced with manpower programs to train disadvantaged workers have discovered that they also generate broader organizational benefits, some of which relate to the entire work force and which occur frequently enough to be included as long-range objectives. Among them are:

- Improving company image
- Updating personnel practices and policies – for all employees
- Strengthening personnel functions
- Acquiring internal training capabilities
- Developing company ability for systematic self-assessment

These goals are somewhat less amenable to quantified measurement. However, progress toward them can be assessed by a company team charged with program and company evaluation.

It is important that a company evaluate its success in reaching its agreed-upon objectives. On the one hand, evaluation identifies the internal company workings which impede and facilitate successful implementation, providing a basis for remedial action. On the other, getting feedback in relation to goals – knowing how they are doing in relation to agreed-upon objectives – can stimulate personnel to more determined efforts to make a program succeed.

The Bank of America in Los Angeles believed it essential to let all other workers know at the very start why the company was undertaking a program with the disadvantaged, how it would affect them and why the disadvantaged would get special services. The bank sought to accomplish this through:

- Meetings with all bank managers, discussing the program in full, then requesting managers to hold similar meetings with their full staff.

- Special publications and videotapes for all employees and for supervisors, using true stories of successes and failures of disadvantaged trainees.

- Group discussions for employees. Here, the bank learned by experimenting. Originally, discussions were conducted for management only, by outside consultants. The bank now has set up an in-house program to get its message out to management, staff and supervisory employees by several means. Material for publication has been assembled for distribution. Also, weekly staff meetings are held throughout the bank to discuss the pros and cons of the program. Awareness seminars have been initiated to focus attention on black-white relationships and how to integrate new workers into the company.

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Prudential Life Insurance Company in Los Angeles believed many employees and supervisors would not be in favor of its JOBS Program and wanted to avoid arousing unnecessary antagonism. The company developed seminars to orient management people to the program but didn't insist on attendance for those who did not care to come. When some complaints and rumors circulated about the program, the company decided to stop providing any further information, hoping to stem further employee reaction.

The result was just the opposite: rumors, misinformation and resentment increased.

Prudential concluded that it had to give employees at all levels specific information. What they wanted to know was:

- How is this going to affect me?

- What kinds of special services and benefits are these new people getting?

- Why aren't we getting them too?

Once the company did provide factual information, resentment diminished greatly. And, as trainees got into jobs and employees had favorable work experience with them, the problems were largely resolved.

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DETERMINING FEASIBILITY

Not all companies have the resources or capability required for effective participation in a program to train disadvantaged workers. Many factors need to be explored and some changes may need to be made to make participation feasible in a particular company setting. The more affirmative answers you have to the following questions, the easier it will be to conduct a successful program. If your answers are not now in the affirmative, making the changes implied will increase the likelihood of program success.

Need	Are we interested in identifying new sources of labor, new techniques for developing human capital?
Opportunity	Can we offer meaningful jobs at a livable wage?
	Do they provide opportunity for advancement?

Labor Pool	Is there a sufficiently large pool of disadvantaged persons available in the community?
Personnel Practices	Are our hiring and recruiting practices and our personnel policies flexible enough to accommodate people with limited work experience and different life styles?
Organization	Are we interested in learning and testing new approaches to manpower development and training?
	Is this a flexible organization, willing to redesign jobs when feasible and upgrade people to make room for the disadvantaged?
	Is our management flexible, willing to experiment and try new ways to train and motivate our people?
	Are we prepared to assign a top person to oversee our program?
Acceptability	Will minority people feel accepted by the rest of the work force?
	Are we willing to make educational efforts to reduce prejudiced attitudes?
Training Capacity	Do we have training resources?
	Are we willing to develop such resources?
	Can our existing training programs be modified to meet the needs of the disadvantaged, or will new ones need to be designed?
Union Relations	Are our relations with the unions free enough of conflict to permit exploratory discussion with union representatives?
Resources	Are there resources available to help us mount a program – such as State Employment Service (SES) offices; the National Alliance of Businessmen; the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP); the Work Incentive Program (WIN); skill centers; adult schools?

The following discussion of some of the foregoing issues represents a consensus of hundreds of employers who are today successfully employing heretofore disadvantaged people.

Program Personnel

Successful programs are run by people who believe in them and who are determined to make them work. A coalition of committed professional training personnel, minority group members from community organizations and managers can be an important reservoir of strength. Experience indicates that program managers should be tough-minded, flexible, interested in experimenting with manpower training methods, and open to making changes in traditional practices and policies. The best managers understand both training and production realities and are able to maintain good working relationships and credibility with production personnel and unions.

Sometimes personnel departments can provide the kind of leadership needed. On the other hand, programs like JOBS should not be delegated to a personnel department which resists change and treats existing policies as too sacrosanct for re-examination, which

practices overt or covert discrimination against minorities, or which regards as defeats changes made to accommodate unions' or employees' wishes.

The best program staff frequently are industrial training types, drawn (if possible) from a company's own supervisors and workers, who have a serious interest in teaching skills and developing employability, who are capable of being direct and fair with members of minority groups, and who have a sense of independence from traditional practices.

Some companies have chosen to learn how to train by hiring or contracting with knowledgeable consultants and trainers. Others have taught themselves the "state of the art" by researching the literature, by asking questions, and by performing a kind of market analysis. "Find out who's training similar people and how they are doing it," became the executive order. For those organizations which already had a training capability, the programs, curricula and trainers had to be carefully studied to determine their "goodness of fit." The result of such inquiry produced a general upgrading of management awareness about the latest in personnel practices and training methods.

Hiring Practices

Changes in hiring practices to permit doors to swing open to the disadvantaged have included eliminating the necessity for a high school diploma as a prerequisite to employment; modification of policies concerning arrest and conviction records; discarding unvalidated non-performance testing as a means to determine job aptitude and work attitudes for entry-level jobs; and eliminating irrelevant sex and racial biases.

In most other ways, employers have kept their customary standards with respect to physical fitness and management prerogatives to hire and fire.

For what kinds of jobs can you train disadvantaged people? How many can you train and place successfully? A great majority of the jobs for which disadvantaged people have been trained have been regular entry positions, many in manufacturing and other blue-collar fields. However, disadvantaged people have also been successfully trained, with appropriate support programs, as machinists, secretaries, bank tellers, electronic technicians, auto mechanics, hospital workers, scientific technicians and equipment repairmen, among other higher skill jobs.

Recruiting Procedure

Almost all companies have had to modify their recruiting methods to some extent. The more seriously hard-to-employ persons, having long felt excluded from good opportunities, seldom venture into a company's employment office or inquire at a receptionist's desk about employment possibilities. Some employers who have inquired about the ways in which their organizations deal with job applicants have been surprised and disappointed to learn that unskilled, untrained, undereducated job seekers are often arbitrarily rebuffed by insensitive receptionists, security guards, employment clerks and by other workers. Employers agree that it is necessary to reach beyond their own employment doors if they are to reach employable candidates in disadvantaged groups.

Opportunity

Employers should establish early in their planning the wage rates they will pay. These rates should be the same as those paid other employees doing similar work or enrolling in similar pre-employment training. Wages which cannot compete with welfare benefits and other subsidies and which will not permit employees to survive at a minimally decent standard of living will neither attract nor retain recruits. Certain support services can be a supplementary attraction.

In a few cases, employers have paid disadvantaged trainees higher wages than other beginning employees receive, without ill consequences. A Western market chain got permission from the union to start JOBS trainees at a higher pay rate than apprentices. In the San Francisco Bay Area (in 1971) trainees start at $2.50 per hour, compared to the apprentice rate of $2.21. After one year's work, wages for both trainees and apprentices go up to $2.54. The company feels that the initially higher trainee rate is necessary to provide a sufficient incentive over welfare income, and because it believes that most of its trainees have more dependents than the usual youthful apprentice.

Employers have found that by redesigning some jobs, such as separating out the routine, repetitive and less technically demanding tasks from the job duties of office, scientific and engineering personnel, new careers have been opened to the disadvantaged who are trained to do these jobs. As a result, greater productivity and improved status have been enjoyed by professional employees, who are then able to use their professional skills more consistently.

Some companies have found it to their advantage to upgrade the skills of longtime employees by training them for unfilled higher level positions. Rather than going outside for such applicants, workers at one level of responsibility and skill development are given the opportunity through after-hours training programs to try their hand at something new. Training on computers, business machines, scientific instruments and manufacturing equipment which are not in use during those hours has permitted workers to learn new skills on their own time. Such programs have seemed significant to both employers and employees and also, through the promotion process, have made room for the disadvantaged in the vacated, lower-level positions.

Acceptance of Minorities

No organization has been certain that there wouldn't be some resistance on the part of the regular workers to having members of minority groups hired, especially if few minority people had been previously employed. However, such fears have often turned out to be exaggerated. It is naive to assume that racial prejudice does not exist, but it is self-defeating to believe that it exists to a larger degree than it does. By asking questions of organizations such as NAB, SES, CEP, NAACP (National Association for the Advancement of Colored People), CORE (Congress of Racial Equality), OIC (Opportunities Industrialization Center) and many others, employers have been better able to anticipate the problems realistically.

While it is helpful to inform company personnel about the behavioral characteristics of persons who come from different subcultures and to explain the need to provide special training, acceptance is enhanced if similarities rather than differences are stressed. Differences seem relatively unimportant when a single standard is used for judging job performance.

A Northern California branch of a major industrial firm states that when it started its first company-financed training program for disadvantaged minorities in 1967, it identified a limited number of job skills for which recruits would be trained, because it did not want to overtax the training capacity of its staff (even though this company had more training staff, expertise and experience than many others). It identified the sheet metal and electrical areas for training.

Projecting 435 entry-level openings in these areas, it decided to hire in a ratio of one trainee to four regular hires, to avoid "ghettoizing" the entry jobs in these departments.

Union Cooperation

Companies that have unions must confer with union officials while considering the question of feasibility. Unions are more likely to agree to change their own procedures and give approval when they participate in initial discussions of the program, and when they can agree with its needs and objectives. Unions may want to participate in the program planning and can play an important part in explaining the training program to rank and file employees to elicit their cooperation.

International Harvester consulted the United Auto Workers (UAW) while planning its first program to train the disadvantaged. The union agreed to view the four weeks of pre-job training in a special vestibule setting as pre-probationary, not affected by usual union requirements. The program has no formal relationship with the union but the union is involved in several ways.

- Before the first trainees started, the UAW International Union wrote to local union officers saying it supported the program and asking them to help the program and bring any questions to their international office.
- Two instructors are union shop stewards.
- The union and its functions are discussed as part of the training process.
- The company has found union support important in squelching rumors and getting acceptance of the program and trainees by rank and file workers, some of whom tended to view the new trainees and the program as a form of reverse discrimination.

Another example of how good handling of union relations helped avert potential problems is the TAT Industrial Training Center. As of July 1972 this project had successfully trained 2,000 under-employed and unemployed persons for very skilled jobs.

At first the Atomic Trades and Labor Council feared that the program would interfere with established apprentice training programs, involving trainees who would not be covered by the union contract.

These concerns have disappeared because of the cooperative design of the program and the fact that TAT trainees are not involved in plant production activities. The union is now an active participant in the training program. Based on its own experience, the TAT project recommends to employers starting special programs:

- Consult with local union leaders, giving them full and accurate information as soon as a program is contemplated. Solicit their support and participation.
- Seek support of the international unions involved.
- Spell out the functions which labor representatives have agreed to perform.
- Be sure unions are allowed to and encouraged to perform these functions.
- Provide union representatives with official reports and any special materials to keep them up to date.

- Include labor representatives in appraisal or review of the program.
- Give labor representatives opportunity to participate in project advisory committees, plus any scheduled conferences.

Deciding How Much of the Training the Company Should Do Itself

While some medium- and large-size companies may already have some capability to train, others – especially small companies – have often had little training experience and may not have any training staff. Such companies may want to try their first program with recruits who have already received some training elsewhere.

A range of possibilities exist, providing alternatives to total in-house training. There are a number of external training resources from which companies may recruit a group of disadvantaged trainees. Resources producing such candidates are vocational schools, skill centers, CEPs and a variety of other training institutions.* Most of these programs are funded by the federal government; detailed information about them is available from public employment service offices.

These resources offer candidates for hire who have been given (some or all of) job-related education, a general orientation to the expectations and requirements of work settings, basic skills training, counseling and other support services (medical, dental, optometric, etc.). Graduates of these programs are at least partly prepared for assimilation into work settings. The company hiring them may need to provide specific orientation to the company and support services during a transition period, in addition to on-the-job training. For the hiring program to be successful, a company should make a genuine effort to provide whatever program components are needed in addition to OJT.

The company itself will benefit from such efforts: In the future, it will be able to do more training its own way, to suit its own needs – and will gradually develop improved internal capabilities to train manpower effectively.

A number of successful company programs have placed the top official responsible for all company training in charge of the JOBS Program. This official is already training-oriented and has the authority and ability to develop necessary training at every level of management. However, it is important that program staff also have sufficient authority to ensure cooperation of operating divisions.

Companies that can conduct complete training programs on their own benefit from the sophistication they gain from the experience. The trainees and the program benefit from good coordination of training components, from the continuity of relationships, from the increased familiarity with trainees' capacities, needs and potentials and from the smoothness of trainees' transition from one training component to another.

Financing Programs

Some companies with superior programs have chosen to bear all additional costs of training disadvantaged hires themselves, but most good programs are run with government financial help.

The 1972 Conference Board study revealed that companies that provided employment opportunities only, without providing special training or support, had a median six-month retention of 44 percent. Many companies entered into JOBS contracts and

*NAB JOBS consortia also perform this training function, especially for small companies. See Chapter VIII for a discussion of consortia.

became able, in addition, to add special training and support service components to their programs. These companies retained approximately 60 percent of their trainees for at least six months. While retention did not appear related to the existence or lack of any particular component, the programs with the greatest variety of components tended to have the highest retention rates.

Information about current government financing programs can be obtained at local NAB Metros and public employment service offices.

COMMITMENT AND ACCOUNTABILITY

Businesses that have been successful in mounting effective programs for hiring and training disadvantaged workers are unanimous in their conviction that commitment is the most important requisite to get the job done.

The experience of many companies has demonstrated, however, that even when there has been clear, strong and unequivocal commitment by top management, programs have not necessarily been implemented effectively down the line. Often, lack of support can be attributed to insufficient efforts to involve middle management in planning, to keep them informed and to monitor their performance. For example, in many large organizations, administration of the program has been assigned to a vice president, who has usually delegated its operation to a middle-management person; in smaller firms, program operation has been delegated to an assistant to the chief administrative officer or to a foreman, usually as an extra assignment, not as a primary or full-time job. Under such circumstances, it is not surprising if implementation becomes half-hearted.

Even if a person is assigned the supervision and implementation of the program as a primary part of his job, how can he know if the program is, in fact, being implemented down through middle-management and first-line supervisor levels? A record-keeping and internal assessment system providing a vehicle for accountability procedures can supply that kind of information and should be adopted by any company participating in a program to train disadvantaged hires. The records kept will also substantially assist the company in demonstrating compliance with government equal opportunity requirements, where that is necessary.

Establishing a system for keeping track of implementation at lower levels on a continuing basis is not enough. The man at the top must exercise leadership in order to overcome barriers to implementation throughout the organization. (While the following suggestions are directly relevant to large companies, the principles implied are equally relevant to small companies.)

Visible Commitment

The top executive should express himself unequivocally about company policy, his expectations that it will be implemented throughout the organization at all levels, and his confidence that the policy will succeed and benefit everyone in the company. He should make the company's commitment known continuously, through many channels, such as speeches, articles in company publications, discussions at meetings, and by giving personal feedback in response to reports on the program's progress, indicating approval, raising questions and circulating the reports and his comments throughout the company.

❀

Top management in a complex industrial corporation found an excellent way to demonstrate and implement its commitment to the JOBS Program. The JOBS Program staff issued periodic newsletters concerning the progress of the program, including difficulties encountered. The newsletter was sent to management personnel, including the president, general

manager, industrial relations manager, division managers and all department heads – more than 100 persons in all. Both the industrial relations manager and the general manager reviewed the newsletters carefully and discussed them at their staff meetings. The general manager frequently made marginal notes on the newsletters and sent them to appropriate division managers, where immediate attention was given the notes, and necessary action taken. In one instance, a trainee reported to the JOBS manager what she felt to be racial discrimination being practiced against her. Her experience was reported in the newsletter, and the general manager asked the division manager to look into the problem. A meeting was held with the division industrial relations manager, the department head, the assistant department head, the JOBS Program manager and the trainee's counselor. They determined that the girl's complaint was justified, and the senior female employee responsible was reprimanded and transferred.

Through use of this newsletter, both for information and to implement action, continuing top-level support was given to the JOBS Program staff.

❀

Information and Discussion

The executive should, at the outset, provide specific information and explanation stressing the practical business aspects to minimize misconceptions, fears and hostility among regular workers. He should also provide opportunities for discussion so that feelings and anxieties may be aired. This kind of change can stimulate considerable apprehension about job security, assignments, seniority, promotions, etc.

Accountability

The responsible executive should make it clear that there will be a system of accountability, recognition for those who do a good job of hiring, training and retaining disadvantaged persons, and penalties for those who do not support the program. The company should know that he reviews the program's progress regularly.

❀

Lucky Stores, a Dublin, California headquartered retail food chain with many stores in three geographic regions, conducts a one-day orientation for all store managers on its program to hire the disadvantaged. The basic message at this session: Lucky is success-oriented; the president expects each manager to make this, like any other program, a success. It's up to you to make it work. There is straight talk and discussion about racial attitudes, but top management makes clear that whatever the store manager's personal attitudes, it expects positive behavior on the job. Not all managers succeed, but overall, the company feels this approach works. Where managers can't handle the assignment, they may be shifted. In a survey asking supervisors which things they were proudest of in their company, the NAB program was at the head of the list.

❀

Incentives

He should provide incentives for personnel throughout the organization to make the program succeed. Middle management must know that remuneration, promotions, bonuses will depend on success in carrying out this company program as much as on achieving other performance objectives. Once this is clear, they will see that foremen and other supervisors make the program work.

First-line supervisors are a key to the success of programs to hire disadvantaged workers. Resolving the real conflict between their traditional, basic responsibility for greater efficiency and productivity and the special problems involved in assimilating new, disadvantaged workers requires both special training with regard to their new employees and incentives to make special efforts to train and assimilate them.* Having a new, underproducing disadvantaged worker on his crew should be recognized as a potential liability to the supervisor, and provision should be made for it in the form of variations from usual production procedures and expectations.

Personnel Participation

He should enlist the active participation of personnel who will be involved in implementation from the very beginning of planning. A program works better if the people who carry it out have some role in its planning and implementation, and leeway to adapt it to their own context. Planning activities should include representatives from all management functions, supervisors at all levels, union representatives, line personnel (especially those who will be involved in OJT), community resource agencies, consultants with manpower and training expertise, representatives of affected disadvantaged groups, etc.

Regular training program reviews should be scheduled between members of the training and counseling staff, first- and second-line supervisors, and between all other contiguous management levels.

Periodic participation in the training program can contribute to renewed involvement in the company's commitment. Supervisors can be scheduled to orient new trainees and make other contributions to the vestibule phase of training.

A national manufacturing firm headquartered on the East Coast found a method for promoting constructive employee discussion of its JOBS Program that fit into existing practices in the company. The company had a history of advanced human relations programs in management. It started its JOBS Program with a letter from its president to all employees, asking their participation in planning:

> "...I feel very strongly that each one of you should be involved in the planning for taking this responsibility. I should like each department to hold discussions and come up with its own ideas of how your department should work together in making new jobs for the black population.... In spite of our progress...we have not been impressive in this field."

Through this and subsequent communications, management made its commitment felt and made it clear that it would monitor and reward (or punish) those who aided (or hampered) the effort.

The company already had regularly scheduled human relations discussion groups for supervisors, middle management and upper management. It was easy to inject discussions of special problems related to hiring the disadvantaged into ongoing training programs. At one point the company found supervisors of new disadvantaged employees complaining that they were not getting necessary support from their superiors in middle management on issues such as retaining a worker who was not yet fully productive. The company found that the supervisors would try to make the program work, once top management made it a priority, but the real breakdown was identified in the middle-management area.

*See Chapter V for a discussion of supervisor orientation.

A special program was developed to build middle-management understanding and support, namely, a series of inter-cultural weekend workshops. Employees from all levels of the company, from hourly employees to corporate officers, black and white, met together in groups of 24 once a month in a remote setting. Many kinds of company problems were discussed in a basic T-group format. Discussions opened up important communication and resulted in useful suggestions for many company changes. Such opportunities to consider possible change in the company, management now feels, are the best way to insure success of the program for disadvantaged workers.

❀

Delegated Authority

The responsible executive should delegate enough authority to operating staff to make it effective in the company context. Staff operating the program must have authority, clout and ability to properly affect recruiting, screening, hiring, placement and follow-up of new workers, and get needed cooperation from operating personnel. This requires proper location in the organizational hierarchy and proper personal qualifications.

❀

In summary, the good intentions of top management are not enough to insure compliance and implementation throughout a company. In terms of its own characteristics, management styles and traditions, a company must plan systematically to identify barriers to implementation, to develop strategies to overcome them, and to install a system of accountability so that top management can know how well the organization is doing at all levels to implement the policy.

❀

Levi Strauss & Co., in San Francisco, has moved effectively to insure implementation of a JOBS Program at 33 locations throughout the company. The company already had an equal opportunity policy, constantly reiterated by communication from management. Between 1968 and 1972, Levi Strauss trained and employed 700 persons who would not have qualified for regular hiring. That program was funded entirely by the company, without government aid.

In 1969, the company received the Business Week award for performance in the area of human development. Shortly after this, the company president wrote all management officials urging new, additional efforts in this field and making it clear that performance in hiring, retaining and promoting minority and disadvantaged workers would be considered, along with other company objectives, in evaluating each manager's performance.

The company has provided a manual outlining specific responsibilities and procedures for implementing the JOBS Program. Some key elements:

1. A full-time corporate program coordinator reports to the president at company headquarters, and is responsible for providing guidance, staff assistance and direction. This man is an experienced personnel official.

2. Each local facility manager is assigned basic responsibility for the program. He appoints a local program coordinator – a management or supervisory employee – selected on the basis of special attributes such as leadership, sensitivity and support for the program.

3. Personnel managers of the three regions in which plants are located monitor the program, conduct training for supervisors on regular visits

to the plants, review monthly progress reports and provide guidance to plant managers to improve performance.

4. Local program coordinators prepare monthly reports showing numbers of hard-core hired and terminated, their progress and production records, and reasons for termination. These reports are sent to the program coordinator and regularly reviewed by top management.

CHECK-LIST SUMMARY

1. Establish short-term and long-range objectives for the company with regard to its involvement in the program, inviting input from personnel from all levels who will be affected by the program.

2. Determine feasibility of program in terms of: need, opportunity, labor pool, personnel practices, organizational capacity, acceptability to rest of work force, training capacity, union relations and community back-up resources.

3. Make determination concerning use of in-house vs. outside training resources.

4. Establish policy with regard to financing of program.

5. Obtain firm commitment to program, not only from top management, but from all levels responsible for implementation.

6. Institute system of incentives and procedures for accountability to reinforce commitment.

APPENDIX B
TRAINING AND TECHNOLOGY

The following material illustrates in more detail some of the elements to be considered in planning for participation in a special manpower program.

"TAT has attracted thousands of applicants in areas where few were expected. This has been accomplished by working cooperatively with state employment services, communications media, community groups, unions, area employees, and schools. It has been possible to reduce entrance requirements from a high school diploma to a six-grade functional academic level at the same time that average training time was reduced from one year to six months. A variety of testing and other selection and placement techniques have been tried, are now used, or are under development. For the most part, trainees have been recruited from the surrounding rural and urban areas, although special recruitment efforts have extended to the Chicago inner city and the Appalachian mountains of Kentucky, Virginia, and West Virginia.

"Procedures for appointments, transportation, and other factors related to getting the recruit into training are well developed. Identification of remedial training needs, personal problems, and program orientation are part of the placement process.

"The training environment. Use of the industrial plant setting for training places the trainee in a work environment with the same rules, regulations, and attitudes that govern the conduct of plant employees. Trainees identify with particular job titles and occupational groups. In this way, the time clock, safety procedures, attendance expectations, and other industrial disciplines are automatically made part of the trainee's experience. TAT has published a trainee handbook, organized a trainee council, and supported trainee social and recreational activities that parallel general Y-12 Plant practices in these areas.

"Technical training. Class schedules and curriculum content have been developed for each training area and published in documents covering instructional methods, the relation of technical instruction to trade-related mathematics and science, and the ratio of shop and laboratory to classroom instruction. Syllabi, course outlines, and lesson plans are also available.

"Skill and technical training is defined as broadly as possible to avoid the limitations inherent in providing too narrow a preparation within any single skill training area. Thus, trainees are able to perform a variety of individual industrial operations, maintenance or technical functions.

"Trainees receive individual attention and proceed at their own rate until they are certified as job-ready by their Union Carbide training supervisors. The majority of trainees move in and out of the program in six-month cycles.

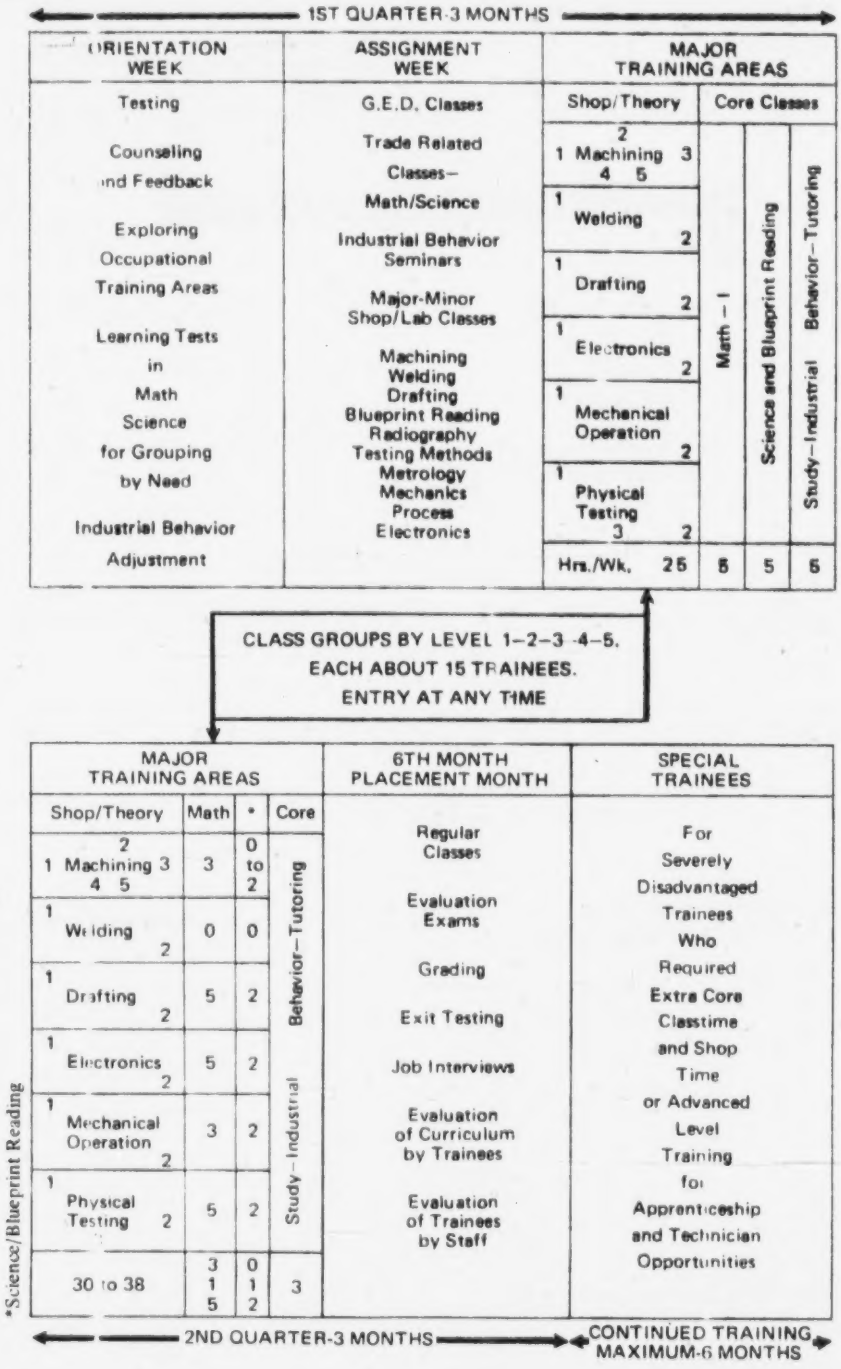
"Trade-related instruction. Classes in mathematics, communications, and trade science are coordinated with shop and laboratory instruction to supplement skill and technical training. Instruction is given at various levels depending on the training area and the individual trainee's ability at entry. Classes are supplemented by remedial work and individual tutoring where needed. Full-time instructors are employed for these classes and a professional remedial reading teacher is on the staff. Community volunteers assist in tutoring and remedial work.

"Support services. From recruitment and training through placement and follow-up the project is prepared to respond to a wide range of individual trainee needs and situations. A regular guidance and counseling program provides for early identification of needs and continuous feedback on training, and gives individual and group counseling assistance. In addition, services are provided, or arranged through referral, to deal with housing, health,

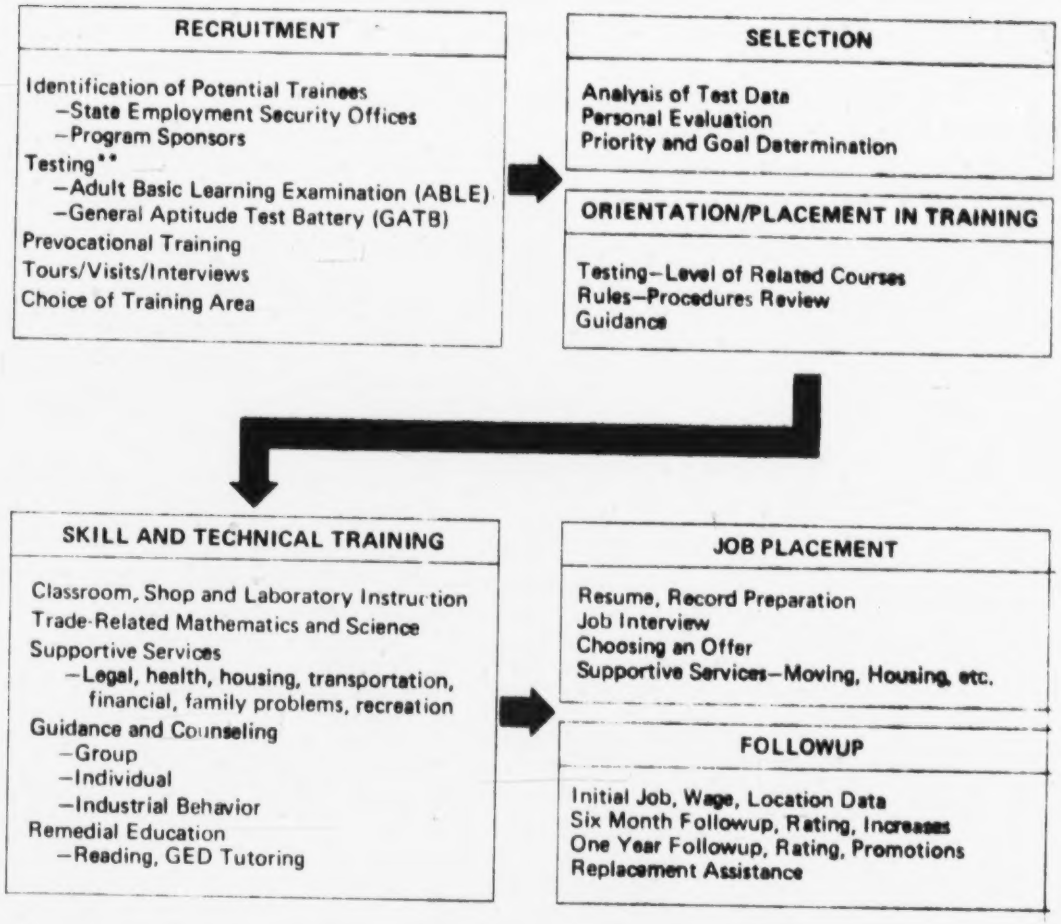
legal, financial, welfare, and other problems. Arrangements for insurance, transportation, recreation, and social opportunities all receive attention as needed from the support services staff. Most of these services are highly individual and underscore the importance the project places on each trainee (Oak Ridge Associated Universities. Training and Technology: An Industry/Education Partnership . . . . 1972).' "

WORKER TRAINING CURRICULUM PLAN

While the TAT program is carried out on a larger scale than most companies require, the careful training plan outlined in the following diagram illustrates the usefulness of systematic planning.



THE INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYMENT PROCESS — SEQUENCE OF MAJOR ACTIVITIES*



*The Job Placement and Followup modules are not relevant to most company programs, except to indicate the usefulness of following trainees' careers to assess program effectiveness.

**Testing for the purpose of screening must be directly relevant to and realistically required by characteristics of the job and training program. Otherwise, it is forbidden by a Supreme Court ruling.

NOTE: The charts above were developed by TAT (Oak Ridge Associated Universities. Training and Technology: An Industry/Education Partnership . . . . 1972).

Chapter III

RECRUITING, SCREENING AND HIRING

This chapter provides guidelines for action once the special manpower training program is underway.

RECRUITING

Because those who are most disadvantaged are least likely to come to company employment offices to apply for jobs or seek job training, it is often necessary to reach out for trainee candidates.

Selecting the Target Group

A company should first develop general selection criteria for the group from which it wishes to draw its candidates. A fundamental consideration is to select disadvantaged persons whom the company ordinarily would not employ; doing so both fulfills the spirit of programs like JOBS, and provides the company an opportunity to develop its own capability to train and assimilate people with a wide variety of characteristics.

These are the kinds of disadvantaged people who may be available for recruitment:

- Some are motivated persons who want to work but have various handicaps which prevent their getting or holding jobs.

- Some are persons who might be interested in work, but who are so failure-oriented that they appear unmotivated. Apparent lack of interest may be the result of poor rapport and communication between applicant and interviewer, suspicion and lack of belief in the job opportunity offered, or a feeling that it will be just another dead-end.

- Some are young people – under 25 – either school dropouts or products of a very poor education, with limited work experience. Young black males form a disproportionately large percentage of today's unemployed. In the first four months of 1971, unemployment rates for young black males were between 28.5 percent and 31.3 percent while the national unemployment rate registered about six percent.

- Some are older minority men and women who have been working at domestic, laboring or marginal jobs. Some are long-time city residents; others are new rural migrants displaced by automation, with no skills or knowledge of urban life. These workers may be more attracted than others by jobs that offer only limited advancement opportunities.

- Some are women – many now on welfare. They can become well motivated and excellent workers. However, child care problems often cause absenteeism and turnover. In clerical and white-collar jobs, women learn skills well but often need more extensive support, counseling and orientation for good social adjustment to the regular work force than do men in production jobs.

- Some are Puerto Ricans, largely in the Northeast, and Mexican-Americans in the Southwest. They are presently handicapped by language problems.

- Some are American Indians, who may have many problems in adjusting to urban industrial life.

- Some are persons with records of arrests, imprisonment, alcoholism, drug addiction, severe personal and psychological problems, long history of welfare dependency and no discernible desire or motivation to change. Some companies have purposely reached out for such individuals, with some encouraging records of success.

In the early days of JOBS and other special manpower programs, a number of companies decided as a matter of social commitment to hire the most disadvantaged, most problem-prone people they could find. While some have had discouraging experiences, others have been able to develop a large percentage of such hires into very productive employees.

In general, a company should establish minimal realistic requirements (for example, in reading and arithmetic) and hire as many as possible of the candidates meeting those standards, until their openings have been filled.

If a company, at the outset, desires to hire only trainees who already have basic skills, they may be able to recruit them from local skills training institutions and vocational schools. As the company develops capability in OJT and in developing human resources, it will progressively increase its ability to assimilate more seriously disadvantaged applicants, and provide basic skills training as well.

To maximize the likelihood of success, a company should try to hire not only the disadvantaged people who can reach acceptable performance levels through special training, but also those who will respond to the normal incentives being offered (e.g., the training opportunity, pay, benefits, etc.), that is, who are ready for the job.

❀

Con Edison hires without any pre-employment tests, educational or skills requirements for entry-level production and construction jobs. Those who are certified as disadvantaged range from functionally illiterate to high school graduates. Intensive vestibule training and personal support services have enabled these individuals to become productive workers, according to the company. After 13 weeks of vestibule training the JOBS Program trainees become regular employees of Con Edison and are advanced to regular work assignments for 28 weeks of OJT.

❀

A national drug manufacturer reports that it has had greatest success in hiring hard-core applicants from 30-45 years of age. Although regular employment is new to most of them, their retention rate has been 78%, with very satisfactory job performance.

❀

A Los Angeles manufacturer had immediate need for entry-level assembly line, stock-keeping and production workers. They had to work with regular personnel and perform at minimum plant standards from the moment they stepped into the production line. Serious absentee or behavioral problems, as well as special treatment for trainees, would have caused trouble with the regular employees.

Trainees were recruited from the Youth Training and Employment Project (YTEP), a community agency which conducts a pre-vocational training program. Those referred were ready to be integrated into the work force without distinction from regular hires. The company did not identify its JOBS hires to regular workers or their supervisors. (In an earlier program

where disadvantaged trainees were identified, they suffered from an employee and supervisor general bias against the hard-core.)

❀

McDonnell Douglas, Chase Manhattan Bank and TRW are among companies that have recruited people with the most serious problems: severe educational handicaps, serious offender records, total lack of work experience, long history of welfare dependency, alcoholism, etc.

In some of these companies, management decided to take risks and experiment with hiring disadvantaged workers without jeopardizing major production efforts, by using training and initial work sites isolated from regular production facilities.

McDonnell Douglas had originally recruited workers into the job at existing facilities with little preparation. Turnover was much higher than at the special training facility, which provided remedial education and gradual adaptation to work schedules, rules and norms.

Many utilities and manufacturing companies have hired and quickly trained people with no skills for entry jobs, although this type of trainee might be a problem to a bank, department store or insurance company with a more middle-class work force. Yet, banks, with insurance companies and others, report they have trained people with educational levels as low as third grade for successful performance, stability and advancement in white-collar jobs. Some minimal levels of education and dexterity may be required for clerical jobs, but good programs with adequate time for training have overcome severe educational deficits.

Some companies have preferred to begin programs with trainees who were not the "worst," to first gain the necessary experience in conducting such programs and to optimize company acceptance. They thus have gradually developed the expertise to conduct successful programs for people with more serious deficits. One such company has been training disadvantaged high school dropouts for clerical jobs since 1962. An official reports:

"As we have learned more about the unqualified dropout, as our supervisors learned to handle them more effectively, we have been digging deeper into the hard-core group; we are taking people with poor motivation and chips on their shoulders whom we would not have touched before."

❀

Many companies recognize that a ghetto resident is far more apt to be hauled in by the police for suspected or minor offenses than residents of other areas. They distinguish between arrest and conviction, and are accepting former offenders and parolees recommended by correctional officers.

Many of the JOBS trainees hired by TRW had felony or misdemeanor convictions. This company, which had an 83% retention rate of trainees after one year in the program, has concluded that some of the brightest people in the ghettos tend to be the most active and problem prone – therefore, some of the brightest candidates have a high percentage of parole and probation backgrounds.

❀

A metal parts manufacturing firm with close neighborhood ties hired men from prison long before it became involved in the JOBS Program, because local families of prisoners appealed to the company to offer jobs as a

means of gaining them parole. The president of this company says that among his best, most reliable workers today are men who have had two jail experiences. The two-time loser often wants desperately to avoid another sentence; some try especially hard to become good workers.

Under the JOBS Program, the company continues to hire ex-offenders and addicts on methadone maintenance. The small size of the company, close personal commitment and involvement of the owner, and informal counseling and support provided by other employees who themselves are ex-convicts contribute to the successful experience.

❀

The Labor Department's bonding program represents another largely successful experience in hiring offenders with criminal records.

Since March 1966 this program has provided free bonding coverage through State Employment offices where inability to secure bonding is a barrier to an individual's being employed.

As of March 1970, 2,141 individuals were bonded through this program, with only 29 claims having been paid out in a four-year period. The default rate was 1.35% – or $15,826 – paid in claims, a very low figure considering that there was a potential loss of about $11,000,000 (based on $5,000 average coverage for 2,141 persons).

This special bonding coverage is now available nationwide, through the more than 2,200 local public employment service offices.

❀

Managing Outreach

People who are disadvantaged often have little contact with the mainstream world, where the jobs are to be found. Outreach programs are designed to overcome this problem.

Rock and roll stations, ethnic newspapers, soul programs and Spanish language stations provide a good means of reaching black and Spanish-speaking groups. Television commercials and special programs set up to reach disadvantaged audiences have also been used successfully by some companies. Job fairs have also proved successful in reaching minority applicants. In job fairs, a large number of companies cooperate with community groups to set up booths manned by interviewers, who provide facts on training programs available.

Some companies have developed partnership programs with local schools and manpower development skills centers, or have "adopted" schools, providing their students with tutors from among company personnel, and equipment and training facilities. Such schools can be very good sources of recruitment. Company representatives can offer tours of company facilities, and sometimes set up part-time work study programs in cooperation with public schools, or summer programs leading to permanent employment.

A number of organizations perform outreach services: local offices of CEP; Manpower Development Training Act (MDTA) funded Skills Training Centers; State Employment Services; private government-aided organizations which serve the disadvantaged, such as Urban League, Service-Employment-Redevelopment (SER) and OIC; or community action groups such as Bootstrap.

Often disadvantaged hires can help companies recruit new candidates from among their acquaintances. This method may be preferable to a special outreach program because present successful employees know the requirements of their work setting and thus have a basis for making realistic recommendations.

❀

Establishing credibility was the most difficult problem when New York City banks first started actively recruiting minority workers. Blacks and Puerto Ricans didn't believe there would be jobs or advancement possibilities for them in banks. The banks had to use minority-community agencies and conduct their own active outreach programs to get their first trainees. Now that minority employment has risen (it was estimated to be about 26% of bank employment in 1969, and some banks reported over 30% in 1971) and promotions have occurred, the banks are getting plenty of referrals from their own employees and direct applications from minorities (Corwin, 1970).

❀

One of the large automobile companies set up recruiting stations in the slum neighborhoods of Detroit and announced that it had well paying job openings, with no tests required. It asserted that a police record would not be an obstacle to being hired. Applicants were asked only to fill out a brief form and pass a physical examination. While such an approach sounds good, it backfired and led to disillusionment and resentment when there were many more applicants than there were jobs. A "quieter" recruitment procedure which did not imply unlimited openings for all applicants, would have been preferable. Also, there may be persons with kinds of police records that might raise questions about suitability for hire, and blanket assertions that may not be adhered to should be avoided.

❀

The Recruiters

A short period of orientation for recruiters is generally considered helpful, especially if they work for an organization other than the company that is hiring. They need to learn about the company, the nature of the program, its objectives, its phases and components, and the opportunities it is offering, so that they can share this information with prospective trainees.

Recruiters should be frank about the nature of the job and not gloss over its limitations (likely in an entry-level job). Even jobs that have undesirable characteristics may be valued by prospective hires if sufficient incentives are offered: livable pay and good fringe benefits; a chance to develop more advanced marketable skills; opportunities for upgrading and advancement. These incentives should also be described frankly and realistically. Charts, pictures and illustrated pamphlets are useful devices during these initial interviews, but nothing can replace a visit to the job site.

Some companies have delegated the recruitment assignment to community agencies that can send them referrals. The agency recruiters, too, should spend time at work and training sites in order to see the jobs that need to be filled and develop a first-hand understanding of what kinds of recruits might be most suitable.

Special programs of outreach can take many forms. Some companies use organized teams of neighborhood recruiters, and assign them to build contacts in the communities as well as seek referrals from local agencies.

Roving recruiters can be assigned to target neighborhoods, working out of mobile vans or simply walking around, talking, and leaving posters and handbills at such gathering places as drug stores, pool parlors, barber shops, bars and churches. Recruiters can also visit schools, especially vocational schools, to address assemblies and talk with teachers and guidance counselors. Some companies assign minority group employees for the roving recruiter role, to show that the company already has minority group personnel on board.

Other recruitment sources that can be used include:

- Community action agencies, local or state human rights agencies
- Correctional agencies, probation and parole officers
- Community relations departments of police departments, or housing agencies
- Model Cities programs
- Veterans organizations and the Veterans Administration
- Public school systems, including elementary, junior and senior high schools, principals, teachers and counselors
- Social welfare agencies (private as well as public)
- Church groups
- Racial and ethnic interest groups, such as the Urban League, NAACP, SER, OIC
- Civil rights and charitable organizations

In some instances, recruiting agencies do not understand a company's job requirements. In others, agencies may inadvertently convey erroneous information about the kinds of jobs and salaries available to potential trainees. Such misinformation can lead to early disappointment and high attrition. Some agencies want the right to insist that a company hire each and every person referred. Agencies sometimes refer people who do not meet the eligibility criteria for the disadvantaged. Company visits and discussions between agency and company personnel will help avoid some of these pitfalls. Discussion with local NAB Metro offices and companies already involved in JOBS can help prospective employers decide which resources are likely to be most helpful.

❀

A large electronics manufacturing firm sends out black and Indian recruiters who are supervisory employees, but are originally from backgrounds similar to the hard-core recruits being sought. The message is that there are advancement opportunities at this company; here are living examples. When disadvantaged recruits come into the company to apply, the same recruiters are waiting for them in the lobby, to accompany them to their interview.

❀

Another West Coast firm uses black recruiters who take potential trainees directly to the plant and show them people like themselves already in training and in good jobs. This reinforces credibility for the skeptical minority person.

❀

Several large companies have videotaped detailed descriptions of their jobs, which are shown to all public agencies, and to high schools and other recruitment sources.

❀

TRW found itself in need of some creative problem-solving in obtaining candidates when it started its first JOBS Program. The company performs

complex work in small, highly interdependent teams. They were willing to hire really hard-core people but insisted that two to four candidates be supplied for each job opening (some 35 different job categories were involved), and that each supervisor pick his own men. This appeared to be counter to HRD's practice of selecting the candidates it felt should be hired. One approach toward solving the problem was to have HRD placement personnel come down to TRW and talk with the supervisors. They could then see the need for close teamwork on the job, and helped TRW develop a process for candidate selection that satisfied the needs of both organizations.

TRW also found that in order to recruit a substantial number of Mexican-Americans, who form a considerable part of their minority community, it was necessary to go to sources in addition to HRD, such as the Job Corps and a local skill training center, which trained in many skills but had no job commitment on completion of training. A company recruiter also went to Mexican-American community groups, churches and teachers, and asked them to refer people to HRD. This worked very well.

After the first three months of its JOBS Program, the company states that its credibility was sufficiently established to get all the candidates it needed from trainee referrals.

Matching People's Needs with Program Opportunities

Companies should assess their recruits to identify those who can move directly into regular entry-level jobs without additional training.

In following the JOBS guidelines, companies frequently have built components into the contract without a hard appraisal of the need for such services for specific jobs. Entry-level jobs that do not require special training do not comply with the funding requirements of federal programs such as JOBS. Such jobs may nevertheless present worthwhile opportunities for disadvantaged persons because they may provide a base from which they can move into better jobs. The upgrading provisions of a JOBS contract may then be used to fund the additional costs of the required training. This kind of long-range career planning, although not yet usual for hourly rate employees, can offer effective incentives for retention and high quality work performance for all employees.

Recruitment Priorities

When an employer has a JOBS contract, it is important that he avoid suspicion that he is using his own recruitment procedures in order to cream from the pool of disadvantaged, using government funds to subsidize the pay of workers he would have hired anyway. Companies participating in the JOBS Program and accepting federal training funds are required to allow priority for 48 hours to the local CEP or WIN offices and to Vietnam veterans in requesting referrals for training slots.* The State Employment Service, or CEP (which is focused on inner city target areas of high unemployment), or WIN (the federal government's program to provide employable welfare recipients with job training and opportunity) are likely to have lists of candidates. When they cannot fill job orders within a 48-hour period, orders can go to other channels in the community, including public and private agencies. However recruitment takes place, all candidates must be interviewed by CEP or ES representatives, who must certify that they are eligible under the Department of Labor's criteria for eligibility for JOBS. After consultation with the Regional Manpower Administrator (RMA), some employers have been permitted to turn to other recruitment sources when these priority agencies could not satisfy company needs.

*Employers participating in the JOBS Program but not accepting federal training funds are not bound by these requirements.

SCREENING AND HIRING

Screening can be accomplished effectively through:

- Interviews
- Written applications
- Tests (carefully chosen)

The Interview

The most frequently used method of evaluating a candidate's potential is a skillful interview. Although a company's regular interviewers can be assigned to this task, they will usually require orientation to understand communication styles of some disadvantaged groups. The best interviewers are likely to be individuals from the target groups who also know the company well.

Hiring should take place as soon as possible after initial interviews, to avoid dissipating the candidate's initial enthusiasm. Probably the single most important indicator of potential performance will be the applicant's motivation for the job. Interviewers will need to be sensitive to the fact that some people who appear unmotivated may do very well on the job when they can see for themselves that the opportunity being offered is a good one.

The interviewer should make certain that the candidate has all of the information he needs to make a decision about taking the job – he may not have been thoroughly briefed during the recruiting process. The candidate should be given a careful explanation of the jobs available, the nature of the training program, salary, benefits and potential advancement opportunities. The interviewer should describe the company's advantages and disadvantages from the point of view of the employee. A visit to the work site to see what the job entails and to meet the supervisor is the best way of informing a potential employee.

The candidate should be told clearly and without condescension what the company will do to help him, and what it expects of him. His assets and deficiencies should be reviewed in terms of what he will have to do to succeed, not only at the entry level but as a potential candidate for advancement.

If possible, the line supervisor who will be responsible for the new employee should be actively involved in the screening process.

Candidates who are not hired should be told the reasons for their rejection and, whenever possible, should be given suggestions about dealing with the deficiencies which disqualified them.

A substantial number of companies base their hiring decisions largely upon recommendations of a personnel interviewer. A recent survey of 150 employers suggested that many applicants would be rejected by the interviewer on the basis of his first impression of the applicant, for such reasons as "personal appearance," "behavior" (nervous, ill at ease), "didn't look me in the eye" or "limp handshake." The authors of an employers' guide who cite this study noted that "these four factors alone would eliminate 99 percent of the hard-core unemployed. . ." who apply (Zimpel & Panger, 1970).

This guide gives an excellent analysis of the major reasons cited by interviewers for rejecting applicants, and how these factors may unnecessarily screen out potentially good employees because of the interviewer's lack of knowledge and sensitivity to their background, culture and experience. For example:

Personal appearance. Difference from the norm may represent independence or the height of fashion in the applicant's world; he has no other experience to relate to. Dark glasses may be the protection of an insecure person.

Attitude. Hostility and aggressiveness often arise from insecurity; properly channeled, these traits can become assets. For example, passivity or indifference can be traits developed from a necessity for "keeping your cool" – so as not to show feelings of hurt and rejection.

Evasiveness. This is often the only means of survival in a ghetto; a middle-class applicant may hide information also, but is less likely to be detected because he does it with more skill.

Unwillingness to start at low level. Such an attitude may reflect lack of knowledge of the work world, which might be remedied by the interviewer.

The Application Form

A written application in the usual form can be a threatening and fearful barrier to some disadvantaged people. Although many disadvantaged persons are capable of filling out their own applications, they may need some help from the interviewer in order to understand certain questions and fill in the blanks. Some specific job requirements, such as need for a valid driver's license, should be attended to at this time in order to avoid later problems.

Using Biographical Information to Predict Work Adjustment*

Life history data have often proved useful in predicting work adjustment. Most manpower programs already provide for some routine collection of biographical data as part of the assessment and counseling procedure.

Richardson, Bellows, Henry & Co., Inc. (1970) have been developing a measure called the Biographical Information Blank (BIB) which has been used in predicting the length of participation in the Job Corps and for predicting job tenure among Employment Service applicants.

The BIB includes in its items many of the questions found in traditional application blanks as well as items concerning feelings, attitudes and value judgments. The items cover nine major categories: home and family, high school, work and military experience, present responsibilities, work and income needs and preferences, adaptation to environment, life goals, self-image, and organization of time. Much of the life history data may be objectively verified, discouraging cheating or conscious distortion. On the other hand, since there are no "right" or "wrong" answers in the traditional sense, those with negative experiences with tests may be less threatened by the BIB. Items were specifically constructed for use with subjects of fourth to sixth grade reading levels.

*Much of the material concerning assessment methods for disadvantaged persons has been excerpted from a recent HIRI report (Backer, 1972), which comprises a complete discussion of this subject.

Testing to Assess Trainees

Wherever possible, testing should be done after hiring, for diagnostic (rather than screening) purposes. This kind of testing helps identify specific training needs and can facilitate suitable placement.

Hazards in Testing

Companies generally should avoid using traditional tests or traditional testing techniques in recruiting the disadvantaged. They often will not adequately reflect the potential abilities of culturally disadvantaged people. Standard tests usually were developed with middle-class whites in mind. They frequently stress verbal ability and reading comprehension, or use language unfamiliar to disadvantaged minority group members. When understanding of certain words or verbal ability are not genuinely related to job requirements, these standard tests are poor predictors of job performance.

Many minority group members who are already performing well on their jobs have failed such traditional tests. A 1970 Supreme Court decision has prohibited the use of tests for job applicants unless they have been validated for the population being tested and are clear predictors of job performance; employers should not use paper-and-pencil tests (which might discriminate against some minority groups) without making certain that they meet this standard. "Making certain" in this instance usually requires formal test validation studies.

Some Guidelines for Appropriate Test Materials

The Educational Testing Service (1969) has prepared a battery of paper-and-pencil tests which attempt to avoid many of the pitfalls found in existing tests. The test battery is still in the refining process and now is available for research purposes only. Some of the characteristics of the preliminary test booklets (being used with Neighborhood Youth Corps trainees) are noted below. These may help to guide employers in selecting appropriate materials to assess disadvantaged individuals.

- Tests are kept as brief as possible to fit with the short test-taking attention span typical of those not highly motivated to perform on tests.
- Test items are printed in small booklets, usually with one item to a page; boxes for marking answers directly in the booklet are provided, so as to minimize errors in answer marking by non-test-wise examinees.
- Seven of the 13 booklets employ pictures to reduce reliance on the written word and to increase interest and motivation.
- These pictures include simple line drawings of youthful figures designed carefully to minimize any racial or ethnic characteristics.
- Separate male and female forms are used so that items reflect both appropriate pictorial and verbal content.
- Verbal content is at approximately a fifth grade reading level.
- Slang expressions are used where appropriate.
- All directions and items are read aloud by the examiner during test administration.
- Administration is to small groups of 12 or less, to permit individual attention.

- Administration is not timed, since tight time restrictions constitute a hindrance to valid performance for the non-test-wise.

- Both pictorial and verbal content have been analyzed carefully for situational relevancy to disadvantaged youth.

Preparing the Trainee for Testing

For many disadvantaged persons, the experience of taking paper-and-pencil tests is anxiety laden. Many of them perceive assessment as unpleasant, incomprehensible or unrelated to helping them to get a job. They do not understand the purpose of testing, are unfamiliar with tests and fear group testing situations. Much of their fear may arise out of limited but aversive contacts with tests in school settings, or from an inability to understand individual test items or the test directions.

One possible solution to this problem is to give disadvantaged trainees some type of pretesting orientation. This experience may reduce distorting effects of individual differences in familiarity with test content, differences in ability to understand test directions, or rejection of testing out of fear or lack of motivation. Moreover, it may be possible through such pretesting experiences to identify those individuals for whom standard paper-and-pencil tests are inappropriate because of low reading levels, etc. These persons may then be guided into alternative assessment procedures (clinical interview, work sample, etc.) in which their cultural backgrounds will not interfere with the effort to identify and measure job-related personal characteristics.

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Both the U.S. Employment Service (U.S. Department of Labor, 1968, 1970b) and The Psychological Corporation (New York City) have devised pretesting orientation materials of potential usefulness in manpower programs. These materials consist of practice exercises and explanations about tests and their purposes and are designed to develop test-wiseness and reduce anxiety.

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Work Sample Testing

One way to avoid the hazards associated with many tests is the work sample technique. By means of this approach, the candidate is asked to complete sample tasks associated with real jobs. Thus, a work sample designed to appraise manual dexterity for certain production line assembly jobs may require that the examinee assemble nuts and bolts or electrical components in a certain sequence. This offers the employer a practical means of finding out about the candidate's aptitude and whether or not he can do a particular job. Work samples can be used to predict both trainability and employability.

Work sample techniques have been used by companies, sheltered workshops for the physically and mentally handicapped, and in connection with hiring and initial placement of new employees in many Department of Labor programs. Basically, they substitute job tasks, tools and equipment for standard written tests. Thus a candidate's tolerance for repetitive routines, his manual dexterity, coordination, physical stamina and ability to follow directions can be judged more or less directly from his performance. Spatial and form perception or eye-hand coordination can be tested, for example, by asking a candidate to disassemble and reassemble a simple lock.

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The Experimental Manpower Laboratory at Mobilization for Youth (McHugh, 1971) has created, under DOL sponsorship, a manual for use as part of a technical assistance package for setting up work sample centers.

The manual includes detailed procedures for developing work samples, organizing a physical facility, and training evaluation staff. According to the manual, job analysis is performed first to determine relevant tasks for use in the work sample program. Next, a decision chart is created to weigh priorities in choosing specific subtasks to be included in a particular work sample. Then the work sample itself is devised. The manual contains rating forms, clerical records and work sample instruction booklets as guides for the program developer; even details such as the color to paint machinery and the symbols to use in indicating where the first aid equipment is located are included.

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Two work sample systems are particularly relevant to the assessment of disadvantaged persons:

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The Jewish Employment and Vocational Service (1968) work sample consists of 28 basic assessment samples of varying levels of complexity and difficulty. The samples represent 10 Worker Trait Group Arrangements of occupational categories taken from the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT) (U.S. Department of Labor, 1968). About one-third of the range of job activities listed in DOT is included. A work sample evaluator observes and appraises an examinee's performance throughout the 28 samples, recording pertinent data on two record forms, the "Work Sample Sheet" and "Daily Behavior Impressions." At the conclusion of assessment, a "Work Sample Evaluation Report" is prepared, describing the examinee's skill levels, work habits, personal appearance and interpersonal facility in work environments. This report is given to the examinee's counselor as one input for vocational decision-making.

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Singer/Graflex (Gannaway & Caldwell, 1971), a commercial manufacturer of training and instructional materials, has developed the Vocational Evaluation System, a work sample battery that makes highly creative use of audiovisual technology. The system employs an audiovisual machine with sound tape cassettes and filmstrips to present programmed instruction for task performance in 10 occupational areas: (1) Basic Tools; (2) Bench Assembly; (3) Drafting; (4) Electrical Wiring; (5) Plumbing and Pipe Fitting; (6) Carpentry and Woodworking; (7) Refrigeration; (8) Soldering and Welding; (9) Office and Sales Clerk; and (10) Needle Trades. Task areas are coded for DOT usage. Each program offers, in addition to performance instructions, occupational information regarding jobs within the occupational cluster, using pictures of on-the-job situations. Examinees pace themselves and the work sample evaluator only assesses performance. Rating forms and other materials are provided with the system. The system has already been used in industrial screening and for vocational education programs in the public schools. Testimonial reports indicate that the self-evaluation by clients of their areas of interest and competency is probably one of the strongest assets of this system.

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Work sample techniques can be especially useful in providing data about the personality characteristics of candidates. Such factors as persistence, dependability, independence, initiative, concentration, reaction to criticism and praise can be assessed, as well as the ability to handle stress, channel energy and maintain motivation.

Considering the Supreme Court decision referred to earlier, the work sample, by definition, is one type of assessment technique that generally offers maximal face validity (revelance) to actual job performance. Even then, a question of interpretation remains: If

the applicant does not do well on the work samples, how well is he likely to learn to perform the required tasks with training and experience? If there are more applicants than job openings, those who perform appreciably better on a revelant and fair work sample (other considerations being equal) might reasonably be considered as better bets in terms of aptitude for the tasks than those who score significantly lower.

CHECK-LIST SUMMARY

Recruiting

1. See that wage rates provide significantly more financial incentive than welfare benefits and other subsidies, and try to offer either opportunities for advancement or well paying and secure union positions.

2. Choose your target group. Then ask ES, CEP or WIN to help you recruit trainees. (You are required by RMA to do so, if you have a JOBS contract. If they cannot supply adequate candidates, the RMA must give permission to try elsewhere.)

3. Invite minority group members or handicapped employees from your own work force to bring in unemployed friends or acquaintances whom they would recommend for employment in the company.

4. Turn to local offices of organizations such as NAB, ES, SER, OIC, Urban League, veterans organizations, churches or other community agencies (such as social welfare) that are in touch with persons who might be classified as hard-to-employ.

5. Hire, orient and train neighborhood recruiters, if needed.

6. Consider using outside consultants who have good contacts with disadvantaged or handicapped persons, if the above-listed resources do not prove sufficient.

7. Consider advertisements, posters, radio and television announcements that tell the company's message clearly. Use minority media.

8. Work with local schools in poverty areas.

9. Participate in job fairs with jobs.

10. Recruit only as many people as you can actively consider. Interview them with care.

Screening and Hiring

1. Have application blanks filled out in the course of a personal interview, rather than in advance. The interviewer should volunteer to help, if necessary.

2. Explain the job and job requirements – if possible, arrange for the applicant to meet prospective supervisors and observe others like himself actually performing the type of work for which he is being considered.

3. Whenever possible, testing should be done after hiring, for diagnostic rather than screening purposes.

4. Use only those tests which are relevant to the target group; if feasible, provide the trainees with advance preparation for testing; explore the use of work-sampling and other innovative approaches to testing the disadvantaged.

5. Follow up in a friendly way a few days after hire by inquiring of the trainee how he feels things are going and whether anything might be done to help him in his adjustment to the company and the work.

Chapter IV

ENTRY-LEVEL JOB TRAINING

Training for entry-level disadvantaged employees is usually offered in two categories: job-related education (sometimes called basic or remedial education) and skills training. This chapter describes what has been learned from the JOBS Program about these types of training.

Good training is a vehicle for assimilating workers into the work environment in a way that develops solid attitudes toward employment. Training should include the basic education necessary for the job and help build potential for realistic advancement opportunities -- providing meaningful equality of opportunity. Good training will support employees' hopes that they can learn skills which are industrially and commercially salable and which lead to economic security and upward mobility. Finally, good programs train supervisors in supervisory techniques suited to their trainees' personal characteristics and learning styles.

Many companies make the mistake of trying to cover basic or remedial education in a two-week pre-employment program. In general, both supervisors and employees report these programs to be a waste; such skills cannot usually be taught in so short a time.

In 1968 Wells Fargo ran a pilot program with 10 disadvantaged women trainees, who attended a local business school half-day and had OJT at the bank the other half, for six weeks. A second six weeks was spent with the entire day on the job. The bank states that this program proved unsatisfactory because there was inadequate correlation between the business school's curricula and the actual job training assignments. In addition, the program made no provisions to upgrade the trainees' academic skills, thereby limiting their success on the job and their advancement potential.

All training is now done within the bank. Innovators of the training program have free rein to coordinate all aspects of the program, including the hiring of instructors, an autonomy which cuts across usual personnel procedures. The program staff consists of an administrator, a teller procedures instructor, a clerical and typing skills instructor, and an academic instructor. Various materials, including films, have been prepared, tailored to the bank's operations. The main goal of the program is to offer the disadvantaged trainee an opportunity for a bank career by preparing him with a body of practical knowledge. This is supplemented with communications skills integral to the business world. The bank feels that the key to reaching its program goal is to instill in the trainee confidence in himself and his ability to learn.

In addition to the $400 per month salary during training (1970), a major motivating factor to the trainees is the job awaiting them at the end of the 12-week program. They learn skills which they see will have practical application on the job. This connection reinforces their motivation to work hard and complete the training.

The bank reports that the trainee performance level and retention rate have been very favorable.

JOB-RELATED EDUCATION

The scope of training programs for the disadvantaged extends beyond the on-the-job training of the past. It now often includes some basic or remedial groundwork to teach the educational skills necessary for effective job performance. Such education may not be needed by all enrollees, but some job-related education may be needed by school dropouts by non-English-speaking trainees, or by those who have suffered from poor or inadequate schooling. Even some high school graduates do not have the skills in communication and arithmetic essential for adequate job performance in some entry-level jobs.

When trainees do not need JRE to learn to perform entry-level tasks at minimally acceptable levels they should be placed on the job instead of being enrolled in job-related education, because the job is the best motivator for retention during the early phases of training. Educational opportunities for additional skills or upgrading potential can be provided later.

When trainees need job-related education, the job should be analyzed and a course devised to teach skills as they actually relate to job functions. Wherever possible, educational materials should use job terminology and company format. Linking learning materials as closely as possible to the actual work will help to motivate learning.

Techniques and materials used in basic education should be based on a careful evaluation of each enrollee's needs. Pre-testing of materials will be helpful in evaluating their usefulness for particular trainees.

Developing a Curriculum

Regardless of whether a program of job-related education is developed in-house or by outside sources, the areas usually considered for inclusion are reading skills, English usage, speaking skills and arithmetic; the ultimate selection, however, would depend upon the job.

Reading Skills. The goal of training in reading skills is to deepen the trainee's perception and understanding of the written word. But reading involves much more than mere word, phrase or sentence recognition. Library, study and reading skills are also improved in the reading courses normally given to trainees. Reading classes focus on the development of attitudes, abilities and techniques that encourage the imagination, thinking and feelings of trainees in the process of communication. The reading curriculum should also include emphasis on word-attack skills, phonetic analysis, reading comprehension, spelling and handwriting skills. To teach reading effectively, therefore, the instructor must be aware of the complexities of the reading process and the variety of skills used.

Trainees are usually placed in classes on the basis of diagnostic reading tests. They can then receive specific prescriptive assistance according to their weaknesses. The performance goal of this endeavor is the attainment of reading levels sufficient to insure satisfactory job performance. Reading materials often carry the content part of orientation and counseling; for example, some companies teach reading with materials on consumer credit and budgeting.

English Usage. Language components usually include lessons in English usage for trainees who speak deviant forms of English, or English as a second language, and for those who speak only other languages. Many people with excellent job potential, and sometimes good experience and skills developed in other countries, primarily need language training to use that potential.*

*Helpful materials for teaching English as a second language (TESL) to Spanish-speaking persons have been produced by The Experimental Manpower Laboratory at Mobilization for Youth, Inc., in New York City (Delacorte, 1971).

Speaking Skills. Proper enunciation, pronunciation and presentational techniques are emphasized in this component. Trainees can be helped to overcome the habit of mumbling or mispronouncing words, and to comprehend directions issued in rapid-fire sentences, without being distracted or provoked. The instructor may find it helpful to outline methods of presenting material or explaining a work problem.

Arithmetic. The general purpose of instruction in arithmetic is to assist the trainee in developing the skills necessary to solve job-related problems and problems of daily living that involve arithmetical thinking.

When jobs require the use of measurements, this can usually be taught in arithmetic classes. Measurements of length, time, weight, etc. can be a vital aspect of the trainee's job assignment as well as his personal life. Learning is simplified when examples for the particular job for which he is being trained are used in the classroom.

The need for job-related academic instruction has become more and more evident in Chase Manhattan Bank's program for disadvantaged school dropouts. In four years' experience, the bank drastically revised its approach to basic education, with far better results as the program focused more on job-related subjects.

Originally, basic education was geared to prepare trainees for the high school equivalency test in a year's time; it was also laced heavily with black and Spanish culture and history.

Early programs had a high dropout rate, and the bank found that concentrating on the goal of high school equivalency was one major reason. Only about 20% of graduates were sufficiently prepared to take the test; meanwhile, many had become bored and dropped out.

Chase finally surveyed the trainees. "They told us that all this cultural stuff was a waste of time . . . . They wanted to know about the bank," said the director of Chase's JOBS Program.

Chase shortened its training program from one year to six months, eliminated much traditional academic course content, and now emphasizes material needed for success in the bank, rather than for passing the high school equivalency exam.

Trainees are still learning reading, mathematics and other academic skills, but only as they are strictly related to bank needs. They learn world geography for use in the bank's international department; they learn communication skills by using bank terminology, but do not study grammar in traditional academically oriented courses.

After it revamped its training, the Chase Manhattan Bank's JOBS Program's dropout rate declined from 35% to 20%.

In New York (with a Puerto Rican population over one million, and another estimated half-million Spanish-speaking new residents) one experimental program trained more than 500 Spanish-speaking residents in job-related "survival English" in brief 50-hour (or 100-hour) courses, conducted for several major companies. At the same time, the program provided a minimum course of basic Spanish for their English-speaking supervisors.

"Survival English" is geared to enabling workers to perform effectively on their jobs. Some companies have instituted it as a crash course, with

reported improvements in morale and motivation, reduction in errors, and increases and promotions.

Crash course classes are usually held for two hours daily, three to five days a week, usually at the job site. From 10 to 15 students usually make up each class. They learn through words related to their jobs, with audio-visual and personal instruction.

The Adult Education Center in New Orleans (formerly the Adult Education Department of St. Mary's Dominican College) developed a secretarial training course for groups of unemployed and underemployed women, most of whom were Negro. One of the main features of the course -- in addition to shorthand, typing and grooming -- was standard, middle-class English. Many of the women spoke Negro dialects difficult for whites to understand, and the course aimed at giving the women speech suitable for office use in the predominately white business world. The program was considered an overall success. Out of 169 graduates, 162 were placed in jobs, and their employers were reportedly enthusiastic about the program. Program officials felt the business speech training had been especially responsible for their success.

A major East Coast industrial firm attributes the effectiveness of its JRE program to several factors, all learned from experience:

1. The company has hired the best teachers it can find and pays them as much as $14,000 a year, because it believes that outstanding teachers are essential for success.

2. An individualized training program is developed for each trainee. He participates in setting his own training goals, and makes out his own development chart. The company does not hire trainees in large groups. It has a continuous hiring program, admitting six to eight weekly, and has about 90 people at many different levels of training at all times. Designing a program based on the individual's needs, and allowing the individual to go as fast as he can has worked much better than a former program which dealt with a group of trainees together. Trainees are moving ahead faster under the new system.

3. A small teacher-trainee ratio is maintained. Each teacher has about 10 trainees. Teachers use various methods -- individual instruction, small groups, large groups, team teaching, whatever is needed.

4. Company-developed materials are used. The company has developed training materials related to its needs, which appear to provide excellent individualized reading and math courses. Another course has been developed in English as a second language, for Spanish-speaking trainees.

Company teachers estimate that it takes an average of two years to get from third to eighth grade level. This cannot be done in the six- to nine-month period for which JRE programs are reimbursable under a JOBS contract. Under its JOBS Program, JRE ranges from eight weeks up to the full 23-week training period, depending on need. It includes 168 hours of remedial math, and 68 hours of remedial reading -- each for one and one-half hours daily. Another half-hour to one hour is spent in discussions of industrial citizenship (orientation) and four hours in job training in a vestibule setting.

After they go on the job, trainees (and other employees) can enter another education cycle, geared to obtaining the GED on company time. The

company also has an upgrading program for maintenance employees, providing English as a second language (on company time) and math and reading courses (on the employee's own time), with company-provided instructors and materials. The latter courses are given five days a week for one and one-half hours each day.

The System Development Corporation, under a contract with OEO, studied 80 existing job-related basic education programs and visited 15 sites in order to develop a set of proposed guidelines for the designers, developers and operators of job-related Adult Basic Education (ABE) programs and an illustrative model program providing a concrete application of the guidelines. The model and guidelines are designed for programs which are maximally adapted to the requirements of particular situations; which are experimental and developmental so that they can be constantly improved; and which take responsibility for all stages of student involvement including recruitment and ultimate placement. The presentation is excellent for any company planning JRE. A second volume contains many illustrated examples of job-related ABE programs (Kent, et al, 1969).

Some topics covered are:

- Goals of job-related ABE programs
- Program organization
- Setting up schedule of programs
- Materials and methods used
- Student motivation
- Assessment, counseling and placement
- Staff characteristics, acquisition, training and supervision
- Program development, evaluation and dissemination
- Funding methods and costs
- Critical operating issues and problems
- Some supplementary considerations including a discussion of equipment and facilities, research and dissemination

Creating a Good Atmosphere

Teachers of job-related education need to create a non-threatening classroom atmosphere, for some trainees will be frightened by the classroom situation and be inhibited in learning. Because of past classroom experiences, they will expect to be embarrassed and will feel inadequate. Teachers often use group discussions, at the same time allowing individuals to work independently in order to help them relax. Teachers using a minimum of lecturing and a maximum of learning-by-doing enjoy the most success. At the outset, the relationship between the education and the job must be communicated clearly to the trainee; i.e., that the education component is the first phase of a total skills training curriculum required to prepare trainees for the job.

Teachers in one large company's job-related education program were encouraged to scour all available sources for new teaching materials, develop their own job-related materials and, where necessary, develop materials geared to an individual trainee's needs. They used many pragmatic materials: subway maps, math related to personal finance, job-related vocabulary.

Trainees sat informally around tables and used their own workbooks and tapes at their own pace. Regular company employees served as monitors, checking work for errors and helping students where necessary. The program's sponsors say this method helps avoid the trainees' fears of revealing their ignorance to others.

Grouping Trainees by Achievement Levels

Job-related education will work best where trainees are grouped according to their educational needs. Whenever possible, the components of educational programs should be tailored to the needs of individuals. When groupings are large, dropout or failure rates tend to increase, for trainees tend to need individual attention from the teacher, and are embarrassed if some of their peers are at higher levels at the outset.

Testing should be interpreted to trainees as a device to enable them to be placed so that their needs will be best met. It should be stressed that tests have no other purpose (for example, they have no bearing on job retention), for many trainees will be frightened of paper-and-pencil tests.

SKILLS TRAINING

The success of a training program depends more on the quality of skills training than on any other component. Even though many disadvantaged trainees have had some work experience, they are likely to need skills training. All companies are experienced in conducting some kind of skills training, and some will be able to satisfactorily provide the training ordinarily given to new workers. Other companies will need to modify their existing approaches, perhaps because those approaches are geared to workers whose skills are more advanced than those of the trainees.

The JOBS Program, by reimbursing employers for the extra costs incurred because of new training or modifications of existing approaches, has helped companies to develop their capabilities to provide quality skills training. In so doing, the JOBS experience has provided new insights into what constitutes optimal skills training components.

All skills training should be constructed around a "success" model. Many trainees have experienced failure in the course of their conventional schooling; too few have experienced success. To instill confidence, skills training components should be built from fairly short units which are easily mastered and which have clear learning objectives. The trainee learns that success is attainable and becomes motivated to press on for more successful learning experiences. He is further encouraged by being able to identify the marketable job skill he has acquired in completing a learning assignment. These skills should be listed along with the jobs in which they may be useful (Hoyt, Evans, Mackin, & Mangum, 1972).

Many companies believe they are giving OJT when they invite new workers to spend time observing production workers and talking with supervisors. Workers may pick up some skills as a result of such informal methods, but when teaching practices are haphazard,

learning is inefficient and work performance may be unreliable. Some employers train informally because the real costs of this type of training are hidden and it seems not to cost much. In the long run, however, systematic training will invariably cost less because it is more effective (except, perhaps, for the lowest of entry-level jobs that really require no more than a brief orientation). Because they often lack the general frames of reference of those in the regular work force, disadvantaged recruits need systematic training.

Job and Task Analysis

No matter what components are included in a training program, certain procedures should be followed. Careful analysis of each job needs to be done to determine the skills actually required and the best sequence for teaching these skills. Companies unable to perform these kinds of analyses themselves can ask for help from the Employer Relations Units of Employment Service offices. Also, a Handbook for Analyzing Jobs (U.S. Training and Employment Service, 1972) is available from the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration. Job analyses should be the determinants of components to be provided.

The lowest acceptable level of skill requirements for each job should be identified. Such specific requirements as communication and computational skills should be defined, and such general requirements as reading and writing ability and numerical facility will have to be identified and specified. Then a program which includes both job-related education and skills training can be planned.

In task analysis, a job is broken down into its component tasks, for recruiting and training purposes. Once details have been isolated and examined, appropriate training programs and curricula can be formulated, training guides prepared, trainers designated, and the recruitment process begun.

Job and task analysis should lead to identification of realistic job requirements, training requirements and selection requirements. Since the objective of a program to hire disadvantaged workers is to provide opportunities for people who have usually been screened out of employment, companies must take care to select jobs at which disadvantaged candidates can succeed after training. There is often considerable disparity between actual and ostensible job requirements. Companies should beware of inflated job requirements which needlessly and often naively screen out qualified candidates.

In many companies, participation in the JOBS Program has helped establish the groundwork for identifying realistic entry-level job requirements and for exploring other factors as well. For example, companies have had positive results with career ladders developed to show how trainees will be able to advance from entry-level jobs. Dead-end jobs ordinarily do not provide adequate incentives to result in a good record of retention. The expertise gained in job and task analysis will enable companies to explore the mobility links between jobs and initiate a program of upgrading for all of their employees.*

CONDUCTING THE TRAINING PROGRAM

Once the job requirements have been identified and the training components selected, there is room for a wide variety of company approaches. Most programs can be categorized on the basis of one of three major methods of training: (1) actual on-the-job training; (2) vestibule training, where workers are trained in a simulated work situation away from the actual job site; or (3) a combination of these two. As a general principle, to the extent the job requires skills training (i.e., is not a low-level job), a combination of OJT and vestibule training is desirable.

*See Chapter VII for a discussion of upgrading programs.

Guidelines for Success in Skills Training

Whether training is done in the vestibule or on the job and whether with or without formal classroom training, depends on the company, the jobs to be done, and the needs and abilities of enrollees. But the following guidelines should be observed, no matter which alternative is chosen:

1. Training plans should be individualized. Training should be geared to the needs and ability of each trainee.

2. Program structures should be flexible. Feedback should be sought from the trainees on how well they have learned, and how they think the training program might be improved; and from supervisors on how well prepared the trainees are when they get to the job – all aimed toward a constructive effort to make improvements in the program.

3. Supervisors should be involved in training. Supervisors should participate in training to the extent feasible to develop their own training skills and get to know trainees, and thereby ease their passage into the regular work.

4. There should be an adequate number of trainers. A ratio of one trainer for every 10-15 trainees seems to work out best.

Many companies with no previous formalized method of training have reported that the use of training procedures developed for disadvantaged trainees has produced new employees who are better equipped than regular hires. As a result, these companies have learned the value of putting all new hires through portions of the program.

On-the-job Training

On-the-job training is the heart of most training efforts. Other components are designed to support OJT. Some programs can exist without good support systems if the OJT is exceptional, but no program can substantially succeed, despite quality support services, if the OJT does not meet the needs of the workers.

On-the-job training is simpler and usually less expensive than vestibule training, and the work setting provides immediate motivation for the trainee. Since it does not present the problem of separate training centers and additional instructor personnel, it is often the training method of choice. Companies interested in implementing an OJT program should consider, however, that this method usually works only if workers already have some fundamental skills that provide a basis for learning the job and if training and counseling are actually provided along with the work.

OJT is effective only if it is systematic and done by supervisors who have good training skills. Many managers feel that they cannot afford to let their good men do OJT because they need them to see that production standards are met. They are handicapping their trainees by following that policy, because left on their own, trainees may pick up bad work habits, and not learn the job well. Informal training, in which trainees are expected to pick up skills swiftly by being exposed to the job, is not adequate. The OJT plan should allow for such special attention if disadvantaged employees are to succeed.

In many cases, supervisors may be trained both to be personally supportive and to provide the training experience from which the trainees can benefit. In others, companies have effectively utilized the services of their counseling staff or personnel office. The designated person periodically talks to the employee, trying to work out any problems he might have, and to the supervisor, giving him inputs which will enable him to have a better understanding of the employee. This occurs most frequently during the training and continues into the job situation on an as-necessary basis.

The employee who is being helped in his new job should be held as responsible as any other employee for making progress toward satisfactory performance; the supervisor should not be too lax, permissive or distant. Frequently, perhaps daily, the supervisor and trainee should review the progress made and difficulties encountered. The supervisor should be firm but encouraging. Performance standards and ultimate expectations should be the same for JOBS trainees as for regular employees. However, supervisors (and fellow workers) should recognize that disadvantaged trainees may take a longer time to meet standards and require more supervisory activity than is necessary for ordinary hires.

Finally, in each OJT effort it is essential that there be continuity of training responsibility; the sink-or-swim approach will not work. A structure for training, with short-term objectives that can be extended as progress continues, seems to work best.

A California electronics firm hired approximately 100 disadvantaged trainees under an MA-3 program, who were trained directly on the job because the company needed workers immediately. The trainees first received two weeks of pre-job orientation (four hours daily) and basic education (four hours daily) provided by an outside community agency (the Martin Luther King Foundation). Following this, most went directly into training for electronic assembly jobs. They attended a NASA-(National Aeronautics & Space Administration) run soldering school but learned primarily on the job, under close supervision. Most progressed satisfactorily but needed someone to support them in case of trouble. When this support was not available on the line, the company's counseling staff filled the gap. This company has gradually shifted away from using outside help toward providing all services internally.

Job trainees go right into on-the-job training the first day they arrive at one East Coast industrial firm. This small company, with 15 trainees among a total of 60 employees, believes that this gives trainees needed activity, and a feeling of movement and reality. Even the 40 hours of orientation provided in the JOBS contract is spent, in part, in orientation to the job itself.

Trainees are selected without testing, and may be parolees or people with very bad work histories. But the company has a previous history of employing ex-convicts and ex-addicts, so trainees may not be very different from some regular employees.

The president of the company and the plant foreman are deeply committed to the program's success. The foreman starts out by interviewing all job applicants, and carefully explaining the kinds of jobs. If the applicants express interest, they are hired. They get a tour of the shop, see the men at their jobs, are told about wages, union, conditions of work.

This small manufacturing company – producing metal parts and forms – finds it difficult to separate people for classroom instruction; most of the training is done right on the job; regular hires are trained along with JOBS trainees.

All new hires begin in the cleaning department, where they sand, file and finish products. They are observed for their job and personal behavior, and potential job interests. They are trained for jobs as punch press and drill press operators, and for milling, shearing and heliarc welding.

One useful training device is a job card originally developed for quality control. Each day, each man fills out a card, indicating which job he

worked on, how many hours he worked on it, what he did, how many pieces he made. This is used to trace rejects and to determine production costs. Helping the trainees fill out the job card and reviewing it with them serves as a check point for assisting them to more effective production. Regular employees who have made the same mistakes for years are brought into the training situation with the JOBS trainees to help correct their errors. This helps greatly to reduce the segregation of trainees.

The training program has to be flexible in this small company; for example, if three men who do shearing work are out sick, it will not be possible to spare others to train men in that area.

This company's on-the-job training appears to work because of the commitment of the president, the plant foreman and other workers under him to make it work; the ability to give JOBS recruits training along with regular employees; and the intimate nature of the operation. This small company has less room for failure; its methods tend to be highly pragmatic.

A small Eastern firm (70 employees) which recycles urban wastes into wallboard and compost has provided various tangible incentives to successfully motivate unskilled, jobless "street people," first as construction workers—building their plant—and later as workers in the plant.

The company first recruited unskilled people because workers trained in traditional methods found it hard to adapt to its very innovative construction, assembly and operational methods. The biggest problem it found with the disadvantaged worker was lack of confidence.

The company told workers as they built the plant, "After you assemble this plant, you're going to operate it, so learn all you can . . . because if something is wrong, you'll have to fix it." Company staff spent a good deal of extra time helping workers learn about equipment and tools and other operations.

Heartened by this experience, the company started a JOBS Program for 20 trainees to become maintenance mechanics, conveyor operators, laboratory testers and industrial truck operators. Trainees start at $2.75 per hour and are quickly raised to $3.00 (1970) and provided opportunity for additional overtime pay. They get uniforms with their names on them, work shoes, gloves, and other special equipment as needed.

Because the work of this company was identified with garbage, referral agencies sent applicants from the bottom of the barrel. Some came directly from jail and drug rehabilitation programs. Many of these people worked out very well.

The company's special JOBS staff, which provides counseling, reflects a learning atmosphere which pervades the entire plant operation. Since this is a new type of business, everyone on the staff is being educated together in its basic processes, and all staff are expected to be familiar with all kinds of jobs. When a regular worker or a JOBS trainee learns one task well, he is moved around to other tasks. This educates him in the whole process (special manuals are being developed for workers at different educational levels) and also gives him a chance to find out what work he likes and can do best.

Vestibule Training

Vestibule training is a simulated job situation in which the employee is taught to perform job skills as closely related to actual work skill requirements as possible. It has the

advantage of allowing expert trainers to teach trainees job skills apart from the production requirements of the actual job. Because productivity is minimal during training, and specialized staff and facilities must be provided, vestibule training can be more expensive than most OJT efforts. It is particularly appropriate where real production pressures are so intense that they would inhibit or frustrate learning, where production would be seriously delayed by the presence of trainees, where wastage would be especially costly, and where jobs entail safety risks. Especially under these circumstances, helping employees become fully productive more quickly may make vestibule training less expensive than OJT in the long run.

Vestibule programs allow workers to receive a great deal of individual attention. They give employees time to acquire good work habits and gradually adjust to the job at their own speeds. They are also a convenient means for providing orientation to the organization and preparatory job-related instruction – for almost all new employees, not just the disadvantaged. Vestibule programs are especially useful for preparing a group of workers whose assignments take them into a number of different departments for on-the-job training, but who nonetheless need the same basic instruction.

In a vestibule training setting, training sequences can be arranged in the best order for learning, wherein each activity gets progressively harder and builds on the knowledge previously learned – unlike OJT, where training sequences must be subordinated to production requirements.

Additionally, many of the problems and conflicts that develop in an on-the-job situation can be relieved in a vestibule training program, where the trainee has the constant assistance of a skilled instructor. Some of the best vestibule training is done by line supervisors who are temporarily assigned to the training site and who themselves gain valuable training expertise which they later can use in their regular production setting.

Vestibules have the drawback of being somewhat artificial work environments. It is important, therefore, that they simulate actual jobs and working conditions as closely as possible.

The key to a successful vestibule training program is follow-up. The company must insure that what a man is learning in the training program is relevant to what he will be required to do on the job. Discussions with supervisors and trainees after they have been assigned to production settings can provide information for improving job training in the vestibule.

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One large corporate program on the West Coast illustrates the vestibule program particularly well. Training is under the supervision of the professional training staff. Each job skill required is mastered at the trainee's pace in a vestibule setting. The worker moves from bench to bench within this environment as he learns each task. When he demonstrates his ability to perform the actual job, he is moved to the production line. In this way the employee is protected from his fears of not being able to perform well, and from the potentially critical attitudes of the regular work force. In vestibule training he is supervised by people who have time to understand his needs.

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Texas Instruments Incorporated became increasingly convinced of the need for pre-job training, as a result of successful experience with several programs.

Its successful MA-3 program, which trained 350 women for electronics assembly and 20 men as machine operators, started with eight weeks of off-site vestibule training, followed by on-the-job training, post-OJT counseling and follow-up.

The company's vestibule training center was located in an area convenient to residential areas of Dallas' disadvantaged and unemployed population, easily reached by public transportation.

Within the pre-job training program, the most important component was identified as the need to "induce success expectancy" in the trainee, and thereby stimulate motivation.

In another Texas Instruments program, 182 of 194 trainees who started vestibule training were placed in OJT, and 174 remained in the program. An evaluation of turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, waste, grievances and other matters of discipline showed that trainees were equal to or better than regular employees in similar job classifications.

Supervisor response was very favorable, and most supervisors requested additional JOBS trainees for their openings. Supervisors said that the JOBS trainees, as a group, were more cooperative and had better work attitudes and more eagerness to learn their jobs than other regular employees.

The Kodak Park Division of the Eastman Kodak Company has created the equivalent of a real job environment in its Hands-On Training center (H-O-T), and developed good relationships between the training program and operating departments by arranging for the center to perform actual productive work, under contract to these departments.

Eastman's H-O-T center has been called a model of effective training. It is a real work situation, located at the work site, which gives the trainees an opportunity to learn new skills, learn about the industrial environment, and receive needed basic education and other support before assuming the responsibilities of regular maintenance and construction work.

Eastman's H-O-T center provides the necessary basic skills training to enable the individual to be a useful helper to a skilled tradesman.

The new hire in this program is placed on the payroll of the department (not on the training department budget). Foremen visit the trainees while they are at the training center. The length of time in training varies according to the individual's skills and progress in the program.

The center contracts with other Kodak departments to produce various devices, such as junction boxes, control panels and other items used in the plant.

The center also performs simple repair work, at levels which new recruits can master. After two weeks' training, for example, a new recruit may perform repairs requiring simple welding. This work has to meet standards but does not require a finished bead.

Trainees are also available to help crews in case of operational breakdowns and maintenance jobs.

"Why Can Off-the-job Training Get Better Results?

"The reason for the apparent paradox evidently lies in the nature of the OJT process as practiced in the majority of U.S. companies.

"OJT is typically an informal process, in which the supervisor or an experienced employee will 'show the ropes' to a new man. In many cases

the new worker will get no more than a brief job demonstration; everything else he will be expected to know or to pick up on his own. It is the informal, 'social' character of OJT that is evidently the source of its shortcomings as a method for training the disadvantaged. A disadvantaged person, because of discrimination or cultural differences, may be shut out of the 'society,' of his work group and never in fact be taken under anyone's wing. While the buddy system was designed with this problem in mind, it has had limited success.

"The disadvantaged need a more organized, more systematized program than the average supervisor is able to provide. The average OJT program rarely includes a systematized course of study covering: (1) subject matter to be learned; (2) behaviors to be learned; (3) means by which the trainee is to be trained; and (4) means by which the trainee's progress is to be measured. First-line supervisors have rarely been trained in designing courses in work behaviors. Indeed, they have rarely been trained in the skills of training, problem solving, and interpersonal awareness that are essentials in making the first-line supervisor a successful manager not only for the disadvantaged but for any employee (Janger, 1972)."*

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A Combination Approach

It is apparent that neither of these two methods of training is often used in its pure form. Generally, the organizational structure and the nature of the job selected for training have an important bearing on the particular combination of training components and method of instruction selected. Additionally, some trial and error should be expected in arriving at a method of training, inasmuch as most companies are not yet sophisticated in the area of entry-level job training.

If the training approach involves more than one method, with different people responsible for succeeding phases, care must be exercised to insure that the phases are integrated and that more importance is not placed on one component than on another equally important one.

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Pacific Northwest Bell Telephone Company changed its original JOBS Program to combine the advantages of both vestibule and on-the-job training.

When the company started its program of training disadvantaged people for jobs as linemen, framemen, installers and repairmen, it gave them three weeks of classroom technical training and then assigned them to work crews, where they received on-the-job training under supervision of a senior craftsman.

Results were not good. "Too often the outcome was poor work, low production, frustration and . . . failure," says a Bell staff supervisor. Turnover was high – about 60%.

The company concluded that "we were asking trainees to cross too many bridges at a time . . . adapting to a different social environment . . . expecting them to absorb technical training while they were having problems of coping with the ways of a work culture." Many personal problems reduced their ability to cope with the technical training.

When trainees were thrust from the classroom into the real work world, they suddenly had to work closely and compete with others from different

*See also Wikstrom (1967).

social backgrounds; as a result, on-the-job training was not easily accepted or absorbed.

Northwest Bell then restructured its training program. Problems of personal adjustment were given primary attention in the initial pre-job training period, along with technical classroom training.

The second step of training consisted of hands-on work in the field, relatively unstructured, so that job pressures did not overwhelm social adjustment problems. Trainees replaced drop wires, placed poles, and did other work under close supervision. The quality of each job was checked before the trainees went on to another assignment. Questions that could not be resolved in the field were taken up in later classroom sessions.

Trainees then returned to the classroom for further technical instruction by specially selected training foremen. At this time, each trainee was evaluated and directed into a job specialty. Trainees stayed together in crews during this additional three-week classroom training period.

The newly trained crew were then taken into the field by the foreman who had trained them, and were given training in a wide range of situations encountered in their craft.

Finally, trainees were integrated into regular work crews. Initial results from the new training approach were encouraging. Turnover went down to 40% and was expected to improve to about 20% as the program was refined. The quality and quantity of work performed also showed marked improvement.

GUIDELINES FOR THE TRAINER-SUPERVISOR

The trainer-supervisor-trainee relationships can make or break a program. The guidelines presented below are derived from the most significant problem areas that have developed in training programs that cover a variety of approaches (Gray & Borecki, 1970).

Instructor-Trainee Relationships

The first concern of the instructor should be to establish a proper relationship with the trainee. In addition to having technical competence in the courses to be taught, the instructor should be able to relate to and cope with people whose attitudes and personalities are alien to him. He should also be able to respond to a wide range of differences in others' abilities to comprehend and communicate. Because a training relationship engages latent attitudes toward authority and discipline, it may constantly be jeopardized by the tendency of some trainees (and trainers and supervisors) to personalize their experience – to the point that it can lead to the breakdown of teaching effectiveness. It is generally desirable that the instructor maintain a discreet psychological distance from his trainees, while at the same time remaining able to relate to their individual learning needs.

When supervisors treat trainees fairly, they provide a model for other employees and build an atmosphere of acceptance. The amount of acceptance a disadvantaged worker perceives from the general work force will be a key factor in determining his success. A new employee with a number of adjustments to make often cannot cope with a rejecting environment during OJT.

Motivation is a big factor in the successful development of trainees. Successful supervisors are aware of their trainees' potential and show sincere appreciation for a job well done.

Teaching Techniques

Marked differences in individual trainees' abilities and interests make problems for the instructor in presenting the material and maintaining continuity. He should be prepared to use a flexible teaching approach, geared to the needs and abilities of individual trainees.

Experience with programs for the hard-core unemployed tends to confirm that a well planned training effort can produce workers who perform as satisfactorily as the average worker, and who demonstrate great pride in their work, their group and the company.

The following points summarize what has been learned to date about the procedures to follow in selecting the training components and developing the method of instruction.

Preparation:

- Make a job breakdown. List important steps, pick out key points (safety is always a key point).
- Make a course outline. List what you expect the learner to be able to do.
- Have the right equipment, materials and supplies.
- Have the work place properly arranged, just as the worker will be expected to keep it.

Instruction:

- Put the worker at ease. State the job and find out what he already knows about it. Get him interested in learning the job. Place him in the correct position.
- Tell, show and illustrate one important step at a time. Stress each key point. Instruct clearly, completely, patiently, but no more than he can master. Invite questions.
- Have him do the job. Praise good work. Correct errors. Have him do the job again as he explains each key point to you. Ask questions to make sure he understands. Have him do the job over until you know he knows.
- Put him on his own. Ask questions on key points. Check frequently. Praise good work. Reinstruct to correct poor work.

The instructor should learn simple social reinforcement and role-modeling techniques on which some of the most effective teaching methods depend. For example, instructor and trainee focus on the elements of the task to be performed, one element at a time. The instructor demonstrates how to do that element and explains the reasons for doing it that way. The trainee copies the instructor as best he can. The instructor guides the trainee's efforts, focusing on the correct job behaviors of the trainee. Whenever the trainee does something right or shows he is learning, the instructor tells him that he is succeeding – by praising him, by saying "that's right" or "good," etc. The instructor does not draw undue attention to whatever the trainee might be doing wrong. Here are a few general principles:

- Demonstration should be utilized as a teaching technique.
- Visual aids rather than textbooks should be stressed.
- Learning-by-doing exercises should be included.

- Presentations should be simple rather than complex.
- Learning-by-repeating exercises should be incorporated.
- Trainees' correct job behaviors should be verbally acknowledged by the instructor (positive reinforcement).
- Positive reinforcement should be frequent, through successful completion of easy-to-master modules.

An important advantage of the method is its emphasis on the job – something the instructor and trainee have in common – and de-emphasis of trainee-instructor personal and attitudinal differences. Trainee and instructor don't have to be compatible, although it helps when they are. The instructor has only to like what the trainee does. And the trainee has only to understand the instruction. Keeping the relationship fairly objective, in this manner, supports realistic attitudes of fairness and acceptance on the part of both. Supervisors have found this method to be helpful for a wide variety of job-related behaviors – including attendance, punctuality, observance of safety and other rules, neatness – and generally applicable to all employees.*

Effective communication is a key element. The supervisor should be able to listen, and he should know how to get his ideas across; he should be able to let the employee know exactly what is expected of him, and then make sure to follow up on his instruction, praising good work and giving reinstruction to correct unsatisfactory work.

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One company uses the "show me" method. A teacher will show a welding technician enrollee the welding technical outline and ask him if he knows anything about welding. If he does, the trainer will go down the outline asking, "Can you do this . . . that? Show me." When they get to words the trainee doesn't know or concepts he can't understand, the teacher helps him. Even enrollees starting with zero knowledge are taught this way.

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The capacity of each supervisor is a major influence on the success of OJT. An international hotel chain spokesman states: "We have found that a supervisor who does poorly with all of his subordinates has had special problems with trainees. On the other hand, our good supervisors have tended to be successful in training people whether they are JOBS trainees or not."

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Instructor Flexibility

The instructor should be prepared to make some alterations in teaching material in order to communicate what is essential to meet the program objectives. He should not insist on or rigidly adhere to fixed, traditional outlines.

Relevance of Material

Many training programs start with a set of vague objectives that trainees must reach in order to become productive employees. Success for the usual hire in these programs is often due to the fact that once he is on the job, he can be helped over the rough spots because he has relevant background knowledge.

*For a helpful guide to the use of objective behavioral techniques by supervisors, see Neiswender (1971).

This cannot be assumed for people who may be starting their first work experience in a regular industrial or business setting. They require that the instructor clearly establish, both for himself and for the class, the objectives of the program – the relationship of his course to the program, and the relationship between their day-to-day activities, the program, the course objectives and the jobs for which the trainees are being prepared. At the outset a step-by-step review of the entire curriculum sequence, showing its progressive movement to good job performance, should be provided.

Providing documented handouts and pre-written notes on subjects that students want to explore, but which are peripheral to the class objectives, helps some students work their way into a subject without sidetracking the entire classroom procedure. Visual aids might be used in the same manner for students with reading difficulty.

The instructor's effectiveness is strengthened by his frequent underscoring of the relevance of the material under discussion – relevance to the trainee's job, advancement and general ability to function in the new working roles. He should have at hand numbers of practical examples of the application and utilization of the concepts covered. He should become familiar with the types of jobs to which the new hires will be assigned after training, so that he can create relevant classroom examples.

Supervisory Involvement

The nature of the relationship between supervisors and members of the training team should be made explicit. Supervisory cooperation is fostered by their mutual participation in program planning, in curriculum development and specification, and in conducting the actual training.

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At TRW each supervisor is required to prepare a job training plan for each employee. This plan is discussed with the employee during orientation, in the presence of the counselor. Monthly reports about the progress of the employee are given to the project office. This type of pre-planning and accountability is necessary in an effective OJT program.

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One company, recognizing that staff personnel would often have to wear several hats in the overall training venture – supervisor, instructor, counselor – provided training experiences for staff to develop the skills for which they would be responsible. They were involved in brainstorming sessions to try to anticipate what to expect, and to learn to interact and cooperate as a team.

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IMPLICATIONS OF A SYSTEMATIZED TRAINING PROGRAM

Programs for the disadvantaged have shown that an entry-level job training program that incorporates elements of quality training is likely to produce benefits for company and employee alike.

Generally, workers who have been trained in a systematic and purposive manner are more likely to become experienced and productive employees, able to contribute to the employer's economic objectives. In addition, they are likely to find their work more satisfying, and may become more motivated to commit themselves to the company over the long term.

Unfortunately, the idea of a career at the working level is still a novel one. Many young blue-collar workers presently have little opportunity to move to more interesting work at

higher pay as they grow older. The dearth of such opportunities forms the basis for the discussion of upgrading programs in Chapter VII.

CHECK-LIST SUMMARY

1. Job-related education should focus on skills that actually relate to job functions.

2. If trainees can perform entry-level tasks at minimally acceptable levels, they should be placed on the job instead of first being enrolled in job-related education; JRE can be provided concurrently if advisable.

3. All skills training should be constructed around a "success" model -- composed of easily mastered modules which lead to successful learning experiences.

4. Skills training should be preceded by job and task analysis in order to identify realistic job requirements.

5. A ratio of one trainer for each 10-15 trainees seems to be optimum in skills training.

6. Skills training can be provided on the job, in a vestibule training setting, or in a combination of both. Each has advantages and disadvantages. For example:

   OJT provides the trainee with more immediate exposure to the actual work situation and enables him to establish an early relationship with his supervisor; but it is sometimes too informal to be meaningful, and often the pressures of meeting production goals take precedence over the training objectives.

   Vestibule training provides more individualized attention to the disadvantaged trainee and enables him to develop skills in a relatively pressure-free climate; but it defers the trainee's actual sense of identification with the employing company.

7. The style and tone used by the trainer/supervisor vis-a-vis the trainee will set the pattern for acceptance by the rest of the work force.

APPENDIX C
WESTERN FORGE CORPORATION

The training plan of Western Forge Corporation, in Colorado Springs, which manufactures the Craftsman line of hand tools for Sears, Roebuck, offers an excellent model for companies in a position to handle all of their own training and support services. Western Forge designed this plan after two years of experience (1969-71) in hiring and training disadvantaged workers. During that time the company (which has more than 400 employees) had utilized services of local referral manpower agencies for both support and training, and had also tried providing the services and training itself. They found the latter system made it easier to integrate workers into the regular work force because training and services were more directly focused on the specific job goals of the company. Training by the employer overcame certain problems stemming from the lack of relatedness between the training that a trainee receives by one agency – usually a social outreach organization funded by the federal government to provide those services – and OJT provided by the employer.

The new plan was fully implemented in October 1971 with 39 trainees. Even in the first weeks the company reported the attitude of the trainees to be very positive; they seemed totally committed to making a successful effort. Shortly after the program began, the company received an award from the city as the outstanding employer of the year in hiring handicapped workers.

Workers are referred to Western Forge by referral agencies and interviewed at the Western Forge training center by the personnel staff. No tests are administered at that time. After acceptance into the training program, trainees are given complete physical examinations, including vision and hearing tests, plus aptitude and diagnostic tests to determine future potential and basic educational needs. From the first day, each trainee is assigned an instructor-counselor who is available to him during the entire program. The instructor-counselor advises him on work problems and work-connected social problems when they arise, recommends remedial education, and monitors and records the trainee's progress.

The training plan is divided into four phases. Phases I and II each provide for 60 hours of pre-OJT, partly in classrooms and partly in a simulated work setting at the training center, which is a separate facility adjacent to the plant. Phase III provides another 120 hours of pre-OJT, spent at job skills development on machines at the center, under close instruction and supervision. Those trainees who are ready for OJT sooner do not need to spend as many hours as allotted for pre-OJT. The three pre-OJT phases are highly integrated, which the company believes to be the real significance of the program's approach and a key to its ultimate effectiveness. Phase IV, OJT, is conducted at the plant and continues until the trainee is fully qualified to perform without further special support or training. He is considered to be a regular member of the work force during all of Phase IV.

In Phase I, the first week of training provides a thorough tour of Western Forge operations, including both the training center and the plant. The trainee is oriented to company policies, procedures, regulations, manufacturing operations, company history, its products and objectives.

After the first week, trainees are divided into two groups. One begins the day with classroom instruction, while the other learns about machines in the center's shop area. At the end of four hours the groups exchange places so that all trainees receive both classroom and shop training each day. Classroom instruction includes training in social skills, in industrial and home safety, and in first aid. Trainees are fitted with safety shoes and provided safety glasses while working in the shop. They receive safety training concerning specific industrial machines they will be using.

Western Forge places special emphasis on social skills training designed to help a disadvantaged trainee rid himself of the expectations of failure and develop a self-image as a capable person. The company has developed more than 40 social skills scripts from which trainees role-play both appropriate role models and inappropriate or impulsive behavior in situations similar to those which may arise later on the job. Role-playing is followed by a discussion of the problem situation and participant responses. Social skills training is scheduled at least once a day for each trainee in 30-45-minute sessions, in groups of seven-10 persons.

Remedial education in both reading and arithmetic begins in Phase I of the plan for those who require such help, and continues for as long as a trainee wants to improve his skills. The content of each trainee's educational program is designed for his particular needs, as determined by the initial diagnostic tests or by observation of his instructor-counselor. The goal is to provide the trainee with what he needs to insure satisfactory job performance capability. In addition to remedial reading and arithmetic, a continuing GED program is open to all employees.

During Phase II, classroom instruction is given almost exclusively. The trainee learns about various manufacturing processes and related staff functions, with emphasis on the trainee's relationship to these processes. In this phase he also learns about engineering methods, production and performance standards, machine tooling and quality standards. Presentation is both visual and by discussion with staff from various work areas. Staff and department functions are discussed, emphasizing the employee/trainee's interrelationship with them. During this phase, accelerated remedial education continues, where necessary.

Phase III begins with classroom instruction in machine parts, operations, safety precautions, specifications and measurements, to familiarize the trainee in depth with individual machines before he confronts them in the shop. In both the classroom and work segments, material is presented in small, progressive steps, which are repeated sufficiently for the trainee to overlearn each step.

During this phase, some trainees are required to teach and monitor other trainees, reducing the number of professional trainers needed, providing the company with an opportunity to observe them for supervisory potential, and giving the monitor a better understanding of the problems of supervisory personnel.

During Phases I, II and III, enrollees receive a training pay rate based on their job classification. As an incentive to complete their training, they receive the base pay rate for their classification at the end of their pre-OJT at the center, plus appropriate benefits and privileges. During all training, enrollees are covered by state workmen's compensation. After 60 days of training, all enrollees are covered by the company's regular fringe benefits, including life insurance, hospitalization, sickness and accident benefits, pension plan, etc.

When the trainee completes his training at the center he enters Phase IV, OJT, and becomes a regular member of the work force, on regular full-scale pay. The training conducted at the center terminates at this point; the OJT phase is conducted at the plant. However, skills development training on the job continues, and the employee continues to receive follow-up attention as needed. Also, the supervisor has been trained to continue the supportive aspect of the social skills training which the employee received while in the training center. The employee may continue his education on his own time if he wishes, by entering the GED program, after working hours.

The company feels that supervisory/management training is of prime importance in its program in order to make the plan run as effectively as possible, at the same time upgrading the skills of all supervisors in human resources development (and not just supervision of trainees from disadvantaged backgrounds). The objectives of this training are to aid the supervisory person to:

1. Understand better the needs of all his employees by making him more sensitive to their individual needs and differences

2. Develop better lines of communication with his employees

3. Promote and create a work environment at the work site that allows for the greatest amount of employee growth and development

4. Evaluate his present set of supervisory and management practices to determine the degree of their effectiveness

5. Set up procedures for handling anti-social behavior at his work site

6. Understand better the special problems that appear to occur more frequently with the hard-core population

7. Identify normal problem areas that appear to be chronic

8. Understand his role at his work site as it relates to his immediate subordinate and how to carry out his job function most effectively

9. Develop insight into the areas of problem-solving and give him an organized, systematized base from which to operate

The means for achieving these training objectives include case studies and discussion, role-playing, role-modeling, problem-solving sessions, lecture-discussions, symposia, postmortem critiques of given procedures, policy reviews.

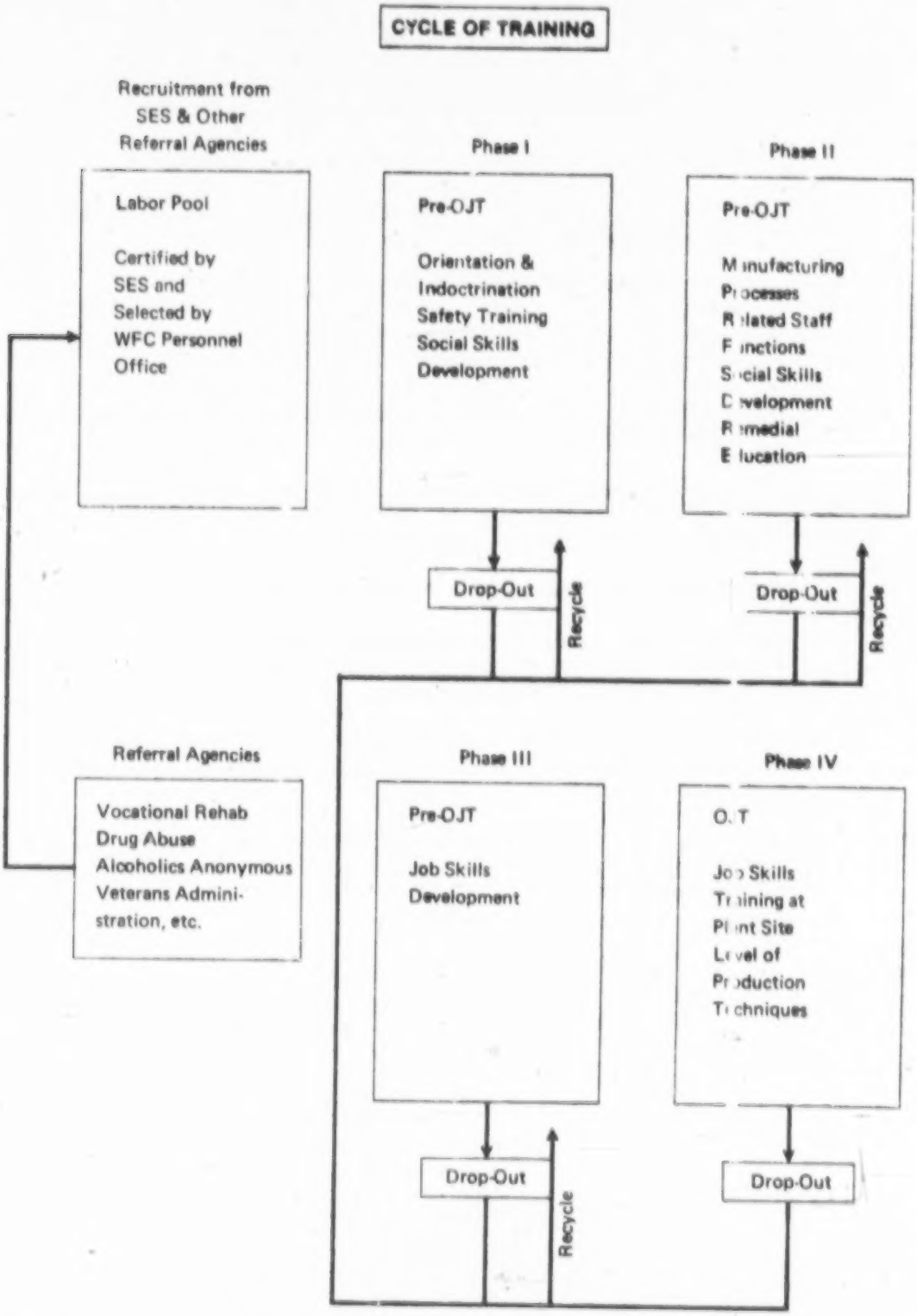
This example illustrates the advantages of developing a program which is:

- highly integrated, both between components being conducted concurrently and phases conducted consecutively. Staffs work together in a highly coordinated manner; there is one program.

- sharply focused on realistic needs for skills which are closely related to job performance. There is little waste motion or dwelling on subjects of questionable utility.

- strongly oriented to the needs of individual trainees and the particular disadvantaged groups from which they are drawn. This is a tailored program, not a packaged one.

WESTERN FORGE CORPORATION
MANPOWER TRAINING PROGRAM



Chapter V

ORIENTING SUPERVISORS

Companies with successful programs to train disadvantaged workers attribute special importance to the supervisor-trainee relationship. No training or educational program – whether directed toward the disadvantaged or the skilled worker – however limited or extensive in scope – however well organized, planned and staffed – can be optimally successful without good (line) management-employee relations.

Many disadvantaged persons are not easily assimilated into the work force. Their lack of work experience may have led to lack of concomitant work habits and skill formation. They often score low in tests, sometimes appear passive in the interview process, and may make a poor first impression on supervisors.

JOBS training programs were created to help overcome some of these deficiencies. New habits may have to be taught; new, more appropriate ways of expressing behavior and feeling may have to be learned. And supervisors need to learn that their first impressions may lead them to underestimate a disadvantaged employee's potential.

The JOBS Program includes a provision for supervisory training. This chapter discusses findings and principles based on experience with supervisors in the JOBS Program. While the subject matter draws heavily upon the supervisory role with disadvantaged employees, its relevance to the general work force has emerged as a very promising by-product.

THE NEED FOR SUPERVISORIAL ORIENTATION

Initially, since program planners believed that supervisors generally would represent a different cultural point of view and would tend to have a different ethnic background, the primary focus was on "awareness" training, the purpose of which was to make the supervisor aware of life in the ghetto, of minority and poverty life styles, and, to a degree, to help the supervisor deal effectively with typical interpersonal problems, especially those arising out of frequently-held minority attitudes toward authority. As time has gone on, companies have tended to put less emphasis on developing awareness alone and more on supervisorial problem-solving and interpersonal skills. They have found that orienting supervisors toward an understanding and appreciation of the disadvantaged is not sufficient to produce appropriate supervisory behavior, even in some of the best-intentioned supervisors. The effective transition from the producer-supervisor role to that of trainer-manager requires more than sensitivity training.

Increasingly, companies want to develop the skills of their supervisors as trainers and managers so that they may become more effective with all their employees, not just the disadvantaged. In such programs supervisory development is the focus and the disadvantaged are treated as just one aspect – albeit an aspect which provides special opportunity for supervisory training.

The supervisor's job may be significantly affected by his company's training program. Trainees in his work force may have to be given released time to attend training classes. If they are being trained on the job rather than in a vestibule setting, the supervisor may have to redistribute work among other members of the work force. He may have to undertake some rescheduling of personnel and their assignments. He may receive complaints from co-workers who are resentful because they are not receiving the special training and support given to disadvantaged trainees. In addition, the supervisor may have to provide more supervision than he ordinarily has time for under ordinary production conditions. The company must anticipate those extra duties and make necessary allowances for them.

Many companies have found that a number of supervisors will at first voice a degree of resentment toward the JOBS Program. Bigotry or prejudice may play some part in these negative feelings but supervisors are also reacting to realistic problems. That is, their eyes tend to be on production deadlines more than on the skin color or ethnic background of the men under their supervision. In view of their concern with getting out the work, supervisors cannot be expected to look forward to the prospect of under-productive workers who may also need a disproportionate amount of supervisory time. Companies have found that they can cope with these misgivings by offering supervisors special incentives and making special allowances during the early stages of adjustment between the new employees and the supervisors. In most cases these initial misgivings decrease or vanish with experience and training. It is important for supervisors to be aware that the special help needed by disadvantaged employees in the early stages of adjustment to the job would be desirable for all new workers.

Chase Manhattan Bank recognized that the supervisor would bear the brunt of the effort when it started hiring disadvantaged workers and increasing minority employment several years ago. In 1968 the company started a training program for managers and supervisors, with three goals:

1. to make them aware of "the changing face of the labor force" – present and future;

2. to provide specific historical and cultural information on four new growing segments of the work force: blacks, Puerto Ricans, women and youth;

3. to provide understanding of behavioral characteristics of new workers, particularly as they are related to motivation and communication.

By the fall of 1970, Chase had trained 1,400 managers and supervisors in an intensive three-day program, with 35 participants at a time, selected from various levels of management.

The program was led by behavioral scientists, including black and Puerto Rican psychologists and sociologists. An evaluation report of the program (which dramatically points out the low level of racial sophistication a lot of companies have to deal with) noted:

> "The fact of seeing a black speaker as intelligent, as sophisticated and as forceful as other speakers in the seminar was enlightening to some of the participants."

The course covered:

- General facts about the new labor force
- A review of the labor market as related to Chase today and the future
- Company commitment to hiring disadvantaged employees
- Guidelines for dealing with specific problems of minorities
- Techniques of motivation and communication
- Actual cases, presented in small group discussions on the final day, with supervisors relating experiences pro and con, and discussing how to better handle these problems

A follow-up survey found that 70% of the supervisors considered themselves better managers and supervisors as a result of having attended

the seminar, about one-third reported definite favorable attitude changes toward blacks and young people, and a slightly higher number of supervisors reported changes in their on-the-job behavior, reflecting greater tolerance, paying more attention to new workers' personal problems.

GUIDELINES FOR ORIENTING SUPERVISORS

Supervisors Must Have Management Support

Supervisors of disadvantaged hires need to feel that top management has some understanding of the added strain under which they may be working. If at all possible, discussions between top management and first-line supervisors should be arranged before detailed program planning begins.

Here are some suggested topics for such meetings, to help set the right climate for positive supervisory involvement:

- Management's business reasons for participating in the program, including the benefits that are expected to accrue to the company, especially from learning how to run a quality manpower program
- Management's certainty that the program can succeed – and expectation that it will
- Management's providing the opportunity and encouragement for supervisors to actively participate in planning, selection criteria, hiring, orientation, support services, the planning of OJT and OJT itself
- Management's willingness to provide special time, production and monetary allowances, as well as special training to supervisors
- Management's accountability and monitoring procedure for the program, and their expectation that supervisors learn better methods of supervision
- Management's incentives to the supervisors – recognition, monetary and promotional – for succeeding

Provide Incentives for Supervisors

The company can prove that it takes its training program seriously by providing some incentives for successful supervisory performance. Management should explain that supervisory performance in the training program and subsequent actual work with trainees will be measured and monitored. Incentives and sanctions should be spelled out. Incentives might (for example) include creating a new job title of "training supervisor" with extra pay, or assigning trainees as an extra complement to the regular work force at no cost to the profit center. Ideally, advancement and other reward possibilities should be assessed partly on the basis of their effectiveness in the training program.

A large Eastern utility encouraged supervisors to accept the JOBS Program trainees by assigning them as a sixth man on a normal five-man crew. In this way, the supervisor got extra help from someone who already had pre-job training.

Everyone Who Supervises the Activities of Trainees Should Be Included in the Orientation of Staff to the Forthcoming Program

Some companies have erred by ignoring lead men, fellow workers who will supervise trainees on the job, and supervisors who will relate to them only part of the time. To be effective trainers and helpers, these personnel need preparation for their new role.

The Supervisor's Responsibilities Should Be Clearly Defined

The supervisor's responsibility for and relationship to the trainee should be made explicit. Supervisors will want clear answers from management to such questions as: Which is more important – training the worker or meeting the production quota? Will I be rewarded more for reducing turnover and attrition among trainees or for getting the work out faster? In many situations, it has been found that attention to problems of human resources development eventually leads to increased rather than to reduced productivity. Thus, the answer may well be "both-and" rather than "either-or."

Involve Supervisors in Program Planning Before the Program Begins

Supervisors should participate in deciding what kinds of jobs the trainees should be assigned to, and what basic (pre-training) skills will be required of trainees. In addition, they should be asked to contribute their ideas about what kind of training should take place and the extent to which job-required education will be needed. They should be given an opportunity to hold periodic meetings to discuss special problems posed by trainees and the program, and encouraged to develop innovative ways of coping with those problems.

In its JOBS Programs, a large West Coast industrial complex places basic responsibility for the program upon the first-line supervisor. The supervisor is responsible for selecting, hiring, firing, training and resolving problems of trainees, with assistance from a highly skilled professional project staff. Most of its work is done by teams working together under a supervisor, and the supervisor-trainee relationship is long-term and close.

During the program planning, each of the company's 10 divisions is asked to indicate classifications and numbers of jobs they can offer. The personnel department in each division appoints an assistant project manager to oversee the JOBS Program in his division.

A supervisor is designated for each job to be filled by a trainee. The supervisor prepares a job description which is forwarded to the corporate project office, and thence to the local ES office for recruitment.

While candidates are being recruited, the project staff holds three half-day orientation sessions for the supervisors. Subject matter includes:

- Details of JOBS contract and funds available for training (six-eight weeks after hiring, the supervisor, personnel manager and trainee counselor meet to negotiate a budget transfer of funds based on the number of non-productive hours estimated necessary to bring trainee to entry level)
- Characteristics of the disadvantaged candidates
- Challenges to supervisors' attitudes toward the disadvantaged candidates

- Problem-solving techniques
- Interviewing techniques

Supervisor orientation includes role-playing (using actual on-the-job experiences), psychodrama, films, lectures and discussion groups.

Supervisors are asked to prepare a training plan and requested to submit monthly reports on progress and problems of trainees.

After orientation, supervisors themselves go to the local ES office to interview and select their trainees.

The Relationship Between Trainers and Supervisors Must Be Made Clear

When the personnel department is directly involved with a training program, as it will be in most large organizations, managers need to be aware of the potential rivalry between personnel training staff and supervisors. Personnel departments may be more concerned with their own policies and employee needs and problems than with operational problems. When training staffs are not company personnel but are provided by subcontractors, they may have little understanding of or loyalty to the overall production goals of the company and its supervisors – increasing the potential for conflict.

The Supervisor's Domain Should Be Respected

While the training staff may intervene in the work setting to set up counseling programs and evaluate and monitor program progress, it must be made clear that top management views personnel staff as visitors in that area. Professional trainers or counselors should be identified as resources, clearly pre-designated as assistants to supervisors, not as rivals for their authority or power. One of their primary roles should be to facilitate communications between supervisors, co-workers and trainees. They should be available to supervisors for consultation on a continuing basis. When a trainee and a supervisor are in conflict and cannot resolve their problem, the final decision about whether or not the supervisor should be counseled with regard to possible different ways of dealing with the situation, or the trainee should be transferred or dropped from the program, should be reserved to a person in authority who will be respected by the supervisor as well as co-workers and trainees. But at all times the supervisor should be able to take whatever immediate action he deems necessary in his department, as long as he has the responsibility for seeing that production quotas are met.

THE SUPERVISOR AS TRAINER

Training the Supervisor to Train

The supervisor's job today is too complex to depend on a haphazard knowledge of training methods. Good training is not an accident – it is made to happen. The same may be said about good supervision. Management has the right to expect quality performance from supervisors. A supervisor who wants his workers to do a good job will need to invest some time in training them.

Some subjects to be covered in supervisory training are:

- Discussion of the characteristics of disadvantaged people – not just their problems, but their potentials

- Discussion of the rules and responsibilities of supervisors as they apply to disadvantaged trainees

- Some guidelines on training the disadvantaged, using role-modeling and behavior-shaping techniques as well as specific examples of "how to's" for resolving specific, anticipated problems

General Electric Company conducts an innovative supervisory training program at its Syracuse, New York plant. A summary of the program illustrates many of the points discussed above:

USE OF THE "MODELING" APPROACH TO BEHAVIOR CHANGE IN A SOCIAL AWARENESS PROGRAM

(Excerpted from General Electric Personnel Research Bulletin No. 9, November 1970)

A technique that has proved very successful in therapy to effect changes in behavior is being applied experimentally to the problem of integrating minority group members into the work force. This technique involves the presentation of desired or "model" behaviors on video tape, followed by role-playing to shape, practice, and learn the new responses.

One of the most difficult problems that any company faces in attempting to hire more disadvantaged minority group employees is to change work-related attitudes and behaviors of both the supervisors and the new minority employees. Many supervisors, for example, believe that individuals from certain minority groups (e.g., blacks, Puerto Ricans) cannot be trusted to pay proper attention to the quality of their work or that they will neglect their job responsibilities at every opportunity. On the other hand, many individuals from these minority groups do not really know what is expected of them in industrial work environments nor do they trust their supervisors . . . . Since people tend to behave as they are treated, attitudes of this kind, which result in certain predictable and undesirable behaviors, continue to grow in strength even though they are clearly not beneficial or adaptive to the longer range objectives of either group.

The evidence is overwhelming that attempts to change attitudes by means of highly verbalized and logical explanations have simply not been able to dent this formidable resistance to change – either on the part of supervisors or disadvantaged individuals . . . . In the industrial setting the defense mechanisms of the newly employed disadvantaged employees stem from the anxiety which these individuals experience about the work environment. Often the supervisor's goal of successful job performance is threatened by the poor work habits of the disadvantaged employee. On the other hand, the minority employee may lack knowledge or experience about how he ought to behave on the job.

As a result he is overwhelmed by his supervisor's insistent demands for high productivity and punctuality. Typically the foreman meets the minority employee's lackadaisical performance with increasingly autocratic demands, while the minority employee counters this threat by withdrawing from the work setting.

In many cases the appropriate responses to deal with confrontations between supervisors and minority employees are not natural responses. The natural response for either party, for example, may be to become aggressive, whereas

the appropriate response may be to remain calm. The objective of the modeling program is to build into one's normal response patterns appropriate constructive behaviors for dealing with anxiety-producing situations. If appropriate responses are demonstrated, then practiced during the training sessions through role-playing, the probability that they will be used is substantially increased.

A sequence of modeling, role-playing and reinforcement in anxiety-producing situations seems to be an effective approach to changing behavior. This procedure is quite different from the traditional approach to behavior change because it does not rely on a logical, rational monologue aimed at first changing attitudes, then hoping that behavior will become consistent with these attitudes. Instead, this procedure is based on some of the fundamentals of social learning, i.e., imitation and reinforcement. It is aimed directly at behavior change without relying on the diversionary tactics of attitude change.

For a supervisor, the incentive to change one's behavior toward disadvantaged employees is the need to get the work out .... For a new employee, the incentive to change his behavior is the desire to "cut the bacon." For both parties, social approval from others and improvements in status serve as incentives to behave in the recommended (i.e., modeled) way. The imitative process is the vehicle for this, as structured by modeling, role-playing, reinforcement.

... Model behavior for the supervisor ... as presented by video-taped incidents, will emphasize tact, coolness, patience, thoroughness, and control. Model behavior for new employees, as presented by companion tapes, emphasize manliness, the values of working at a job, and job success.

Other video-taped situations may involve not quitting, how to teach, developing trust, pride in work, reaction to ostracism, the new environment, absenteeism, and lateness.

When conducting the program, prior to the presentation of each tape, the instructor asks the participants to consider the similarity between the depicted scenes and their own jobs and environment. The theme of the tape and what will happen on it is described explicitly. The instructor emphasizes the behavior to be modeled and also lists these behaviors clearly on a blackboard. After viewing the tape, participants discuss it and relate it to their own situations. At an opportune point in the discussion, the instructor asks participants to act out scenes similar to what they have just watched. This gives them an opportunity to practice the new and desired behaviors in an unthreatening environment.*

Use of Social Reinforcement

Supervisors can become more effective as trainers and motivators by learning to use verbal rewards to reinforce good work habits. This technique, first tested by behavioral scientists, is known as social reinforcement (SR), and refers to the shaping of behavior by the use of verbal rewards only. Supervisors are trained to shape desired work habits and attitudes by being observant of what workers do and communicating their approval immediately after the desired behavior is seen. SR is introduced in conjunction with a carefully developed training plan. The techniques are easily learned in four four-hour training sessions. Supervisors are first taught the principles underlying how people learn.

*The instructor uses encouragement and approval to reinforce desired behaviors as the participants play out the situations. Thus, participants learn not only which behaviors are more effective, but how to apply reinforcement techniques in the teaching process.

This knowledge is then coupled with training in observing behavior and learning what is typical behavior for a worker. Supervisors also learn how to communicate job instructions effectively and how to evaluate a worker's understanding by observation and questioning.

Employers who have tried the SR approach acknowledge that not only are the techniques easy to learn, simple to use and require practically no expenditure to put into effect, but that supervisors learn skills which have a beneficial impact on all workers, not just the disadvantaged.*

Over 200 supervisors from 14 companies were trained by Mentec Corporation of Los Angeles, under a Department of Labor Research and Demonstration contract known as Operation Pathfinder. One year after training the supervisors reported that the techniques helped them develop and put into practice a more responsive style of supervision. There were several beneficial side-effects to SR which were not part of the original intent. Supervisors reported that SR applications were responsible for improved production and sales, fewer accidents, fewer parts and tool losses, better overall worker morale, and generally, a more responsive feeling on the part of workers to the introduction of change. In one business organization, a union official acknowledged to management that he would be hard put to come up with grievance issues the next contract round because the workers were happy with management's more human attitude.

A modified version of the training program given supervisors was also tried with the disadvantaged trainees employed by the business organizations. It was found that when trainees are taught some of the same principles underlying the SR approach, they learn their jobs more easily, make fewer mistakes and are more easily assimilated into the regular work force than under previously tried methods. The trainees were taught how to seek out the behaviors required by a job; how to listen to instruction; how to feed back instructions both verbally and behaviorally; and how to train themselves to make newly acquired skills a habitual part of their behavior.

Stressing Communication Values

A major theme in supervisor training should be the importance of developing and constantly improving communication methods and overcoming special problems that may arise in communicating with disadvantaged trainees. They may have language problems, for one thing. They may be too timid or too scornful to ask questions. They may not understand when they are expected to ask questions or they may be too proud to reveal their ignorance. They may not exhibit interest or enthusiasm the way the other workers do.

Supervisors should learn practical techniques to help them cope with these kinds of difficulties. For example, supervisors should be encouraged to repeat instructions. They should, if possible, be offered visual aids such as charts and diagrams to assist them.

Supervisors may also benefit from suggestions on how they can help trainees build self-esteem (beginning as early in the program as possible) to prevent dropouts because of discouragement before trainees have had a chance to succeed. Thus, they might be told to encourage suggestions, to call employees by name, to give credit for good work as soon as

*Four guides dealing with the use of social reinforcement have been developed by Mentec Corporation (Arkin, et al, 1972a, 1972b; Mentec Corporation, 1972a; Smith, et al, 1971).

it is done, to offer recognition for effort as well as for achievement, to encourage initiative, to be cautious in placing blame, not to scoff at poor work, to treat trainees as co-workers.

When they offer criticism they should attempt to do so in private, with tact and objectivity. Above all, the trainee should be made to feel that he can succeed if he keeps trying.

In addition to facilitating supervisor-trainee communication, management should not overlook the importance of providing opportunities for regular, constructive communication among supervisors themselves, and feedback to management.

When General Electric (Syracuse) decided to train rather severely disadvantaged people for above-average jobs as electronic technician associates, supervisors posed a major problem. The difficulties developed when trainees entered a 12-week OJT period after eight weeks of remedial education and other classroom preparation.

As reported by the supervisor of the vestibule training center, "One of the most challenging aspects of the program was getting supervisors to build greater flexibility into their job-training assignments so that the trainee could gradually develop confidence in his capabilities."

At meetings held after trainees were on the job several weeks there was considerable feedback from trainees and supervisors. Several trainees complained that they weren't being asked to do any work, that they merely sat in the lab doing textbook homework assignments. Supervisors responded that often trainees had performed assigned jobs so poorly that they felt it would take longer to explain how to do it than to do the job themselves; they were waiting until some more "appropriate" work came along.

At this point, according to the training center supervisor, "the training session took off from a company-sponsored meeting to a truly valuable in-service training program. . . . Different supervisors started suggesting innovations which could be made by those supervisors who were having problems . . . supervisors were asking questions, and other supervisors were answering them and offering suggestions on how to solve them. This was the turning point in the total OJT program."

PLAY FAIR

Workers may be upset if they feel that new disadvantaged workers receive special privileges. Sometimes employees and supervisors in the regular work force who belong to minority groups resent trainees from minority groups; they feel that since they had to struggle to make it on their own, everyone else should, too. Allowing trainees to break rules without being penalized may reinforce undesirable behavior and will tend to demoralize the general work force. Furthermore, because it is condescending and patronizing it may also adversely affect the morale of trainees, because the trainees are usually eager to prove to themselves that they can conform to company standards. Supervisors should explain to their work groups the special problems of disadvantaged trainees and the goals of the training program before it begins, and should assure them that trainees receive special attention only because they need it to get started.

Trainees should be expected to eventually meet the same behavioral and production standards as other workers. However, in comparison with members of the regular work

force, they may need more explanation, instructions and counseling from supervisors over a longer period of time before they can learn to do so.

❀

A national manufacturer of business equipment reports that former laxity and coddling of trainees has been replaced by a quicker and firmer expectation of standard plant behavior. But the company is also providing more counseling help, particularly on trainee problems in the community, and transportation aid. When the trainee is in OJT, the supervisor may make the decision whether to terminate him. However, he first puts the trainee on suspension, as a warning, and will terminate him only if further violations occur. The counselor may confer with the supervisor and provide suggestions, but the supervisor makes the final decision.

❀

A major West Coast utility found that initially its supervisors were confused about how to handle discipline of new disadvantaged employees. Their personnel department has since worked with supervisors to develop general rules for disciplinary action, which can be applied with flexibility, allowing circumstances of each violation to be evaluated. Supervisors are asked to recognize the special family, transportation and other problems of the disadvantaged employees to try to find the causes, and to seek solutions on an individual basis. Supervisors now consult with a personnel representative to determine action on difficult problems.

❀

Dual standards of behavior created serious problems with regular employees of a large Midwest firm. A study by the firm evolved the following recommendations:

Management at the policy level should enunciate and clearly transmit to supervisors general guidelines for handling trainees; such guidelines should not be absolute, but must indicate when it is necessary to review problems with the personnel department or program staff. In general, relaxed expectations for meeting standards immediately may be necessary at the start. But employee complaints about dual standards may be minimized by hiring trainees as apprentices at a lower pay level, and using a periodic assessment of job performance, absenteeism, tardiness and other behavioral factors to award pay increases. When trainees meet regular standards they should be up to entry pay levels.

❀

A major California banking firm stresses the importance of regular company standards from the start of training. Supervisors use no dual standards. If a trainee is late his paycheck is docked. The company wants to get him "addicted" to a full paycheck and recognize the consequences of his behavior. The whole training atmosphere says, "We mean business; you are an employee and we expect you to act like one."

❀

CHECK-LIST SUMMARY

1. Supervisors must have management support in undertaking hiring and utilizing disadvantaged employees; the support should include credible evidence that management understands and will accommodate the special problems such a program places upon supervisors.

2. Incentives should be provided supervisors to offset the extra responsibilities they must assume.

3. The supervisor's responsibility for and relationship to the trainee should be made explicit.

4. The supervisor's domain should be respected; it should not be impinged upon by trainers, counselors, personnel staff, etc.

5. The supervisor should be backstopped with special preparation to equip him to function as trainer of the disadvantaged.

6. The supervisor should be alerted to the hazards of granting special lenience to disadvantaged trainees because of the resentment such privileges may stimulate among the regular work force; regular employees should be clearly oriented to the "why's," "when's" and "how long's" of special training.

Chapter VI

SUPPORT SERVICES

While skills training is the core of any manpower development program, trainees who come from disadvantaged groups often require a variety of other services as well. Since these services focus on special trainee needs and problems that interfere with their job performance, they are referred to as support services.

The importance of support services must not be underestimated. HIRI's study, as well as other recent studies, indicates that companies have had relatively little difficulty in training the disadvantaged in job skills. This is partly because they have usually been hired for the lowest skill-level jobs; but even when companies have trained for higher level skills, there has been relatively little problem in reaching desired performance levels. The chief problems have turned out to be the areas of employee motivation and behavior, both of which can often be modified through the wise use of appropriate support services if the work situation itself is reasonably satisfactory. That is, there are some jobs wherein the working conditions are so noxious that few people will put up with them if they can help it. In such cases, the primary question is not how to help the employees adapt to the environment, but rather to think about the possibility of improving the work situation and work structure.

To illustrate this point, Quinn, Levitin and Eden (1971) report a study they conducted of one company's very ambitious, very expensive and very unsuccessful attempt to solve the problem of reducing turnover among economically disadvantaged workers (mostly black, at entry-level jobs involving the assembly of heavy machinery, but at base pay that averaged considerably over $3.00 an hour). It was found that 42% left the company within their first six weeks of employment.

In an effort to cope with this problem, the company instituted a six-week vestibule training program, with classes of 15-25 men, during which time the trainees were paid $2.50 per hour. The nature of the training assumed that the turnover was attributable principally to characteristics of these workers rather than to characteristics of their jobs, thus was aimed at fostering the "personal growth" of the trainees rather than on teaching specific skills that would be relevant to their imminent company jobs.

The reported facts about those jobs were that (1) the advisors and teachers had no advance knowledge of the particular type of company job to which a trainee would later be assigned; (2) out of a sample of 66 workers interviewed, 27 of whom had left the company either voluntarily or involuntarily within six weeks of their employment and 39 who had entered the company at the same time as the 27 but were still on their jobs when they were interviewed, the major cause of turnover appeared to be the poor quality of their working lives. The physical conditions were dirty, noisy, overcrowded, physically exhausting and dangerous. Of the workers interviewed, 35% had been injured at work during their first six weeks with the company. A newly hired worker was treated as a cipher of "replacement personnel." He was often moved, like a pawn, from job to job, station to station, or supervisor to supervisor in response to highly unpredictable fluctuations in company absenteeism or production quotas.

The researchers conclude that:

These data suggested that turnover was almost exclusively determined by characteristics of the worker's job or, in certain cases, by generally immutable properties of the worker's background. Neither of these sources of turnover can be altered by training. That the company's training

program failed to reduce turnover was less a function of shortcomings of the program's design or execution than it was a function of the total irrelevance of the program to the social problem it was designed to solve. No amount of employee training can make working conditions objectively less noxious.

There are also some individuals who have undesirable background behavior patterns that are so deeply ingrained that those patterns are not likely to be altered by orientation training and support services. Yet, there are many cases on record where remarkable changes in individual behavior patterns have occurred; cases where truly hard-core unemployed and hitherto seemingly unemployable persons have "turned around" to become highly valued employees - given opportunity, skills training and the kind of relevant support that demonstrates to the individual that an employer, or society, cares about him.

The JOBS Program, for reimbursement purposes, groups together a wide range of activities carried out by employers in support of skills training.

The most important support services are:

- Orientation
- Job-related education
- English as a second language
- Special counseling, focusing upon problems connected with adjustment to work (a mandatory program component)

and, when necessary,

- Medical, dental and optometric services, transportation assistance

plus, in some cases,

- The provision of day care services for the children of trainees

The JOBS Program provides subsidies for these support services to the extent to which their costs exceed those ordinarily met by an employer for his regular employees. Reimbursement is not provided for services already being offered by a company. For example, when transportation to the job is provided routinely, or extensive employer-sponsored medical services are available, no special programs to meet transportation or health needs will be necessary and reimbursement funds should not be requested.

Each of the above services is discussed in this chapter,* along with:

- Legal assistance
- Advice on money management
- Social counseling

which are not reimbursable under the JOBS Program but may be helpful to many trainees.

*Except job-related education, which is discussed in Chapter IV.

The more companies join with agencies and community groups to put pressure on local governments, schools and agencies to provide better public services available to all, the less employers themselves will have to provide those special services for their employees.

Support services must be goal-oriented. Supervisors, instructors, trainers and other support staff members should stress the practical and the relevant in relation to program objectives when working with trainees, avoiding time-consuming exercises that bear no relation to those objectives. Whenever possible, support services should be coordinated with the skills training program, to minimize scheduling conflicts with the main goal of the training program, which is to provide the training required for regular production standards.

Employers should not assume that all or, for certain trainees, any special services are necessary. Wherever possible, individual employees should be allowed to decide whether or not they want a particular kind of support service, and should be allowed to participate in the decision about how the service will be provided.

JOBS contracts are written so that if some employees require fewer services, more may be provided for others. If no special services are needed, an employee may not belong in a JOBS Program, which is intended for persons who are not fully job-ready, and who need special help in order to increase their employability.

ORIENTATION

Many companies rely on word-of-mouth among workers to transmit information to a new employee about the customs and procedures of the work setting. This is more likely to be the case in small companies, and especially those with a relatively stable and homogeneous work force in which a new employee is likely to be a relative or friend of a more experienced worker in the plant. However, such informal systems often fail to operate effectively when workers drawn from a new labor pool are brought into a company in significant numbers for the first time, especially if the new workers are racially or ethnically different. Older employees tend to have less frequent informal contact with such workers, either on or off the job, so that the new disadvantaged employee does not get access to the informal communication system through which he could learn about the style, rules and procedures of the company.

Even small companies should make certain that disadvantaged trainees are adequately informed about the company and the training program – including what the company expects from them and what they can expect from the company.

When trainees are the first minority group members hired by a company, and they seem racially or ethnically different from older employees, it is wise to provide for introductions between the new and the older employees. (The regular work force should have been prepared in advance for the impending training program.) This should be done without putting the new workers on display or arousing resentment in older workers. Such introductions can help trainees learn about the company from sympathetic older employees.

Goals of Orientation

The orientation program should:

- Provide basic information on the way the company works, how it affects new employees, what is expected of them, what they can expect of the company
- Provide tangible evidence that the program is "for real" and that the company is credible

- Stimulate trainee motivation through offering incentives such as promotional opportunities, pay increases, seniority status and other regular employment benefits

- Build a sense of responsibility, self-confidence and belief in self

Companies that have been working on programs for a number of years find that, increasingly, they are focusing more on orientation to their particular company and its procedures, and less on general orientation to the world of work. Many of these companies have redesigned early programs and now provide an initial block of time for orientation, followed by a continuing orientation process, often closely related to counseling.

Built-in feedback to and from trainees is helpful in keeping orientation reality-directed. It is important to have a flexible approach to orientation, so that it can be changed and made more effective as the program goes along.*

Some Components of the Orientation Curriculum

In planning the orientation curriculum, the following elements should be considered:

Company Background. Let the new hire know about his employer. Show relevant movies, if available; conduct tours of the company, and answer questions thoroughly. Try to build in the trainee's sense of company pride – partly by demonstrating the interest of the company in its employees, products and customers.

The Job. Describe the importance of the job and its demands and pressures. Inform employees of the criteria for good performance. Illustrate the employee's importance by showing how he contributes to the total product, how the product is used, and how others depend on his work.

Pay. Explain to employees what their starting take-home pay will be, and when and on what basis they can expect salary increments. Describe benefits and what they provide. This should be done very early in the program and then repeated later in the program. Include, if appropriate, lessons on money management for those who are interested, but don't talk down to people.

Working Conditions. Show employees where they will be working, so they can see the work setting and their fellow employees. Indicate if any special clothing is required and who is responsible for providing it.

Rules and Regulations. Inform new workers of company policies concerning absences, tardiness, days off, vacations and other rules and information they will need to know. Spell out clearly the rewards and sanctions for following or breaking the rules. Demonstrate to the new hire how and why the employee and company have a mutual responsibility to each other. Invite questions.

Tour of the Plant. When taking new employees on the plant tour, show them how to get from the gate to work stations. Point out the location of washrooms, vending machines, water coolers, cafeteria, nurse's station, personnel office, counselor's office, time clock, etc.

Support Services. The new hires should be informed of special supports

*A self-instructional package titled Group Leadership Techniques for Manpower Programs, especially useful for orientation teachers, counselors and supervisors, has been developed by Manpower Science Services, Inc. (Gordon, 1973).

available if needed. They should be introduced to counselors or job buddies, and should be told of the help the company will provide in cases of emergency, including legal or medical difficulties.

Supervisors. Introduce new hires to their supervisors early in the program. Supervisors should welcome the workers, provide a rundown on what the job and department are like, and answer questions. Whenever possible, supervisors should participate in the orientation program.

Special Training and Job Opportunities. Describe the skill and other types of training the trainee will receive. Explain how long it will last, whether it will be conducted on the job or in a separate area, and who will conduct it. This is a good time to plant seeds for the worker's future growth. Though orientation should be geared to his immediate job, realistic future opportunities should be indicated. The trainee could be shown a road map of job opportunities, told how he can qualify for these jobs, how others have qualified and how long it took, and what the company will do to help him realize opportunities. Make it clear what the trainee has to do to succeed. Make it clear that the program is designed for success, not for failure.

Orientation should be seen as a continuous process of assisting workers to make the best use of themselves, company resources and services, and the income and other benefits they will receive from employment. It should also be seen as a means for anticipating the causes of, and thereby preventing, attrition or alienation.

Deciding Where and How to Conduct Orientation

In some cases, orientation is provided in a formal classroom setting, but it can also be conducted informally, or in different places at different times. In fact, orientation should be seen as beginning at the initial interview, when trainees are given basic information about the company.

Whether or not a formal orientation program is necessary will depend, in part, on whether its functions can be served by other means. When supervisors, coaches or buddies can cover material which would otherwise be given informal orientation sessions, there is probably no need for a separate orientation component. However, these supervisors, coaches or buddies must be trained to provide orientation. The company should not assume that they will cover all necessary topics without preparation and guidance.

A number of companies are putting much more emphasis on trainee participation in the orientation process through group discussion and question-and-answer sessions, to make it more relevant to his needs than formal structured courses.

❀

A Los Angeles firm gets trainee participation through role-playing. Videotapes of problem situations on the job are shown – situations illustrating lack of communication, a supervisor who isn't aware of a problem developing, an employee being especially audacious to a supervisor. The tape is stopped at crucial points and the new workers discuss the situations and suggest what they would do about them.

❀

A major New York utility uses the following process: Each trainee is asked to present a brief autobiographical sketch of himself. Then the trainer conducting the orientation session talks about his own background, indicating that he, too, has had problems. Trainees are asked to identify situations in which they've failed and what they've learned from these

experiences that might be helpful. They are asked for examples of successful experiences in their lives, and the discussion suggests that they now can have similar success in their work.

❀

A large West Coast manufacturer started with an orientation and counseling format based on the practices of other companies, plus guidelines suggested by its recruiting agencies and an assessment of what it thought was needed. But it later greatly modified and changed this format based on its own experiences.

For example: The original format contained a section on personal hygiene and grooming, which was found to be unnecessary for most trainees. However, helping trainees who were coping with a drug problem or who had problems in police relationships – two subjects not in the original package – turned out to be extremely important.

Orientation is spread out over a one-week period. Its chief goal is to develop interest and pride in working for the organization. Factual information is provided about the company and its benefits – which are available to trainees from the first day. Group discussions tackle questions such as attitudes toward work. Typical on-the-job problems are role-played, and the group is asked to comment and offer suggestions. Prejudice is discussed, both the fact of its existence and why people shouldn't use it as a "cop-out" and assume that their complaints won't be taken care of because they're black or Chicano.

Orientation discussions cover the importance of understanding instructions and carrying them out accurately and completely. Problems of getting to work on time and staying out of trouble are discussed.

Trainees who have been through the program are brought back for discussions with new trainees. The company uses success, failure and near-failure trainees to illustrate problems and how they have and have not been overcome. Trainees who have been recruited from the same area often know each other and can understand common problems. New enrollees believe the ex-trainee who says he has overcome such problems. Group discussion provides mutual support for trainees who want to express doubts and fears and ask questions.

The quality and experience of the program staff and the extent and nature of orientation and counseling, which are woven into the entire program, are prime factors in the excellent retention (85%) that this company states it has had with severely disadvantaged and problem-prone trainees.

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Counselor-leaders in another company's program conduct one week of orientation for trainees, in groups of 20 with one counselor. Morning group discussions are held and afternoon field trips are taken to various company locations.

Orientation usually starts with a film called "Marked for Failure,"* which presents the failure of the ghetto school and other social institutions to prepare inner city residents for jobs, and dramatizes many typical problems. This is used as a basis for discussion about problems a trainee may have in his work life.

The company makes clear to trainees what it expects from them in terms

*Produced by National Educational Television (NET), March 1965, and distributed by Indiana University Film Library, Bloomington, Indiana.

of attendance, job performance, appearance, cooperation, promptness; and what they can expect from the company – pay, training opportunities, company benefits, holidays. Limitations of union regulations are also explained.

The content of the orientation program is flexible. Emphasis is placed on getting the trainee involved and motivated, helping to reduce his frustration, building his sense of personal dignity, and creating belief in the company's purpose.

❀

One major automobile manufacturer changed the content and method of orientation, based on its experiences. It re-oriented its program to a goal of building responsibility and independence in the trainee. Earlier programs had emphasized helping and supporting, and resulted, the company felt, in too much coddling.

In the revised four-week pre-employment training program, orientation and counseling are almost indistinguishable. About seven hours are specifically allocated to orientation, which consists of basic information about the company and its jobs, mostly through observation and touring work sites. Forty-five hours are spent in individual and group counseling. The company has moved from an exclusive reliance on one-to-one counseling, which resulted in too much dependence on the counselor, to more group counseling, in which one staff advisor meets with 15 trainees. The group as a whole participates in discussions of problems such as getting along with people, absenteeism and lateness. This use of group dynamics aids in developing responsibility because the trainee's peers "get on his back" if his lateness or absenteeism hurts the group performance, and also provides peer reinforcement where appropriate.

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A major industrial corporation uses its entire 23-week training program as an orientation for JOBS trainees. This company has successfully trained seriously disadvantaged people to become productive, dependable workers, keeping them in a vestibule training setting for the full 23-week period.

The initial formal orientation period was reduced from one week to two or three days, in order to get recruits into more active training quickly, but orientation and counseling are interspersed throughout the program, with approximately one hour of orientation each day.

The initial orientation session starts with a tour of the entire plant, to give the trainee an idea of the reality of the entry-level job at which he will begin work, the range of jobs open, and a feeling for the type of company he is joining.

The company finds it essential at these initial sessions to overcome doubts, misconceptions, confusions and discontent which may cause the trainee to drop out.

Orientation is conducted mainly through discussion led by a top official (the company's training manager) and by the program's teacher-counselors. Typically, the discussion will start by asking trainees, "What do you expect of this company?" A list is compiled on the blackboard, and each item is discussed.

A second list is compiled under the heading "What does the company expect of you?" This list includes expectations concerning attendance, promptness, safety, etc., and is also fully discussed. (Some six to eight weeks later, in the training period, trainees role-play these same questions, some acting as company representatives, describing what they expect of

employees, others acting as employees. Trainees acting as company officials tend to be very tough and demanding of their employees.)

Later in the program, former trainees are brought in for about two hours or more of free discussion with new trainees about their experiences in training and on the job. Average workers and near-failures are brought back, along with some very successful workers, to keep it real. Trainees ply them with questions: "Is it for real?" "Is it tough?" "What kind of pay are you getting?"

Because the company finds most trainee problems are off the job, its orientation program concentrates heavily on support services, using both internal and external resources.

For example: Financial and legal problems are most prevalent. When the employee gets his first paycheck – it may be as much as $200 – he may blow it all. Before this time the class discusses budgeting, installment buying and loans, garnishment procedures. A representative of the Internal Revenue Service discusses taxes; another from Legal Aid explains legal rights and resources; trainees go in small groups to the local bank, learn about credit, how to open an account. Consumer education includes discussions on car buying, financing, buying brand names vs. store brands. An Urban League representative discusses housing, Veterans Administration (VA) and Federal Housing Administration (FHA) loans, etc.

The company continues strong emphasis on support throughout the training period and when the trainee goes on the job. The company has employee advisors, available to all employees – not just JOBS trainees – who advise the foremen, and help them handle problems with employees. These employee-advisors are in close touch with 30 community agencies and provide referrals on specific problems.

The company has found employees' personal problems so important that it has now hired a caseworker from a local family service agency to be available to all workers at the plant site.

COUNSELING

Counseling is a mandatory component of JOBS Programs. The objectives of counseling are:

- To prepare the trainee to move into the job by building his self-confidence
- To help him cope with personal problems that could cause him to drop out
- To help him develop the work habits he will need to do the job
- To help him resolve common work-related problems such as difficulties in relationships with supervisors and peers
- To help him cope with the new environment of the office or plant
- To help him understand and deal with values that are new to him or may seem alien to him
- To help him deal with stresses and strains arising from cultural and linguistic conflicts
- To help him prepare for future opportunities in the work situation

Companies which provide effective counseling are generally having greatest success with their trainees.

The Role of The Counselor

Here is a range of functions which counselors may be called upon to perform with trainees:

Orienter:	Provide information about the realities of the world of work: the expectations of supervisors and employers; the social and behavioral expectations of fellow workers; the systems linking the trainee to his job – transportation, credit unions, etc.
Teacher:	Help the trainee develop behaviors appropriate to the work environment; i.e., learning to work and get on with supervisors and fellow workers.
Supporter:	Root for the trainee (in effect, not permitting him to fail); increase his motivation and receptivity to teaching and training.
Coordinator:	Identify and bring the trainee into contact with agencies and resources he may need to help him with legal, financial, family, medical, psychiatric and drug problems.
Planner:	Help the trainee anticipate problems and develop solutions to confront and avert those problems: help the supervisor and trainee develop strategies to deal with problems and assure trainee success.
Interpreter:	Interpret the company's and the supervisor's behavior to the trainee, and the trainee's behavior (successes and failures) to the company and supervisor.
Advocate and Ombudsman (perhaps most important of all):	Help the employer (from the program's outset) provide a more accepting environment for the trainee, at the same time trying to insure equity for the trainee when grievances occur. Interpret social institutions, agencies, bureaus: i.e., the middle-class world with which the trainee must deal.
Builder of Independence:	Free the trainee, in due course, from the need for the counselor's help.

Counseling can also be given to supervisors to smooth the way for integration of the trainee as an accepted employee (as discussed in Chapter V).

The counselor should meet the new employee as early as possible in training and be continuously available throughout the period so that the trainee can form a trusting and stable relationship with him. The major need for counseling is early in the trainee's employment, but a high percentage of trainees need some continuing kind of guidance and assistance. Their difficulties in maintaining a successful, long-range work history often emerge months after initial employment. Counseling should be available for at least the first six months of employment.

Counseling may be on an individual or a group basis, or both. Most of the material that follows deals with individual counseling, but there have been a number of successful demonstrations of the value of taking small groups (of about seven persons) and having them share their problems and proposed alternative ways of handling such problems. There may be only trainees in the group. Or the groups may be mixed, e.g., about five trainees and two supervisors, plus a trained counselor-group leader. Situations or

problems that are brought out and discussed may also be worked through by means of role-modeling and role-playing, followed by further group discussion.*

Counseling is most effective when it is an integral part of training. The counselor can then help the trainee deal with problems as they arise in orientation, job-related education, skill training and follow-up on the job -- and can help supervisors deal with the trainee at the same time.

On the other hand, some serious problems have arisen when counselors have not adequately helped the trainee to develop independence and personal responsibility. Lack of these qualities creates problems both with trainees who may test and try to get away with as much as they can, and with supervisors and other workers who resent continued leniency and special treatment.

Most good programs have some system of follow-up by the counselor after the trainee goes on the job. But it is generally agreed that there should be a recognized cut-off point where the trainee knows that he is responsible for his own problems and can have counseling only to the same extent that it may be available to any employee of the company.

A national manufacturing company reports that it has a professional counselor who works with all (not just disadvantaged) trainees from the start of their training (which is conducted in an inner city subsidiary plant). When the trainees move to employment at the regular plant their counselor follows them. She works with supervisors and "beats on those who are not working properly" with the trainees. She can also consult, as needed, four full-time company psychiatric social workers who are available to all company employees.

In addition, for several years the company has had a volunteer committee of black employees, who get company-paid time off (up to half time) to provide support to trainees in making adjustments to the job, or working out personal trouble situations. This committee serves both as an advisory source and pressure group on the company.

Who Should Do Counseling?

Considering the varied roles of the counselor as intermediary between trainee and company operation, it is desirable to use company staff members as counselors, provided they have the interest and personal skills. If such people are not available in the company, good counselors sometimes can be provided by community agencies, subcontractors and consortia.

Among the range of personal qualities cited by different companies for effective counselors are: a person who "is honest, has maturity, has genuine interest in the trainees"; "can be firm and enforce legitimate discipline"; "can be a good role model"; "can relate to trainee on his own level"; "is shockproof"; "will keep trainee confidences"; "can work with supervisor and management"; "expects responsible, acceptable performance and behavior from trainee and stands ready to help him succeed." Personal attributes of humanity, sensitivity and warmth are as important in a counselor as racial membership and professional training.**

*A group counseling program, including videotaped material as a teaching aid, has been created by Mobilization for Youth, Inc., Experimental Manpower Laboratory (Tobias, 1970; Tobias, Schenkman, & Reinish, 1970).

**See bibliography for an excellent guide for non-professional counselors (Gordon & Erfurt, 1972). Also see another manual which can also be helpful for counselors, although it was written for supervisors, who wish to use a behavior modification approach (Neiswender, 1971).

Some of the best resources for counseling have been former trainees who have succeeded and advanced in the company. They are likely to be persons with whom the recruits can identify and who are believable to them. (Special problems with police, credit, family, etc. may require that consultants with expertise in such problems – perhaps from some community agency – also be available for use on an as-needed basis.)

Trained professional counselors may be ineffective in reaching disadvantaged minorities, especially when they are inclined to treat such clients clinically, as if they were patients. Professional counselors may be too committed to their own middle-class values, and unacquainted with work problems that stymie new workers, to develop the kinds of interpersonal relationships that lead to successful counseling with disadvantaged people. The disadvantaged person may see the professional counselor only as an authority figure, rather than a friend and helper. On the other hand, it takes a person with special experience and training to understand work settings and resources well enough to be an effective teacher and advocate for the trainee.

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A large Eastern utility has trained and placed about 750 disadvantaged people in both construction and clerical jobs, with a 60% retention rate of trainees, compared to a regular employee retention of 53% after six months. Orientation and counseling conducted by specially trained members of the company's regular staff are important components of the program.

The company states it believes that only company staff can motivate, orient and train new employees. Staff members are chosen to be trained as counselor-leaders because they are "people who care."

❀

A small electronics firm developed a follow-up counseling system with trainees and supervisors. The counselors are all people who have experience in working with minority and community agencies. One was formerly employed by a community action group that had been hired by the company to help in recruiting and conducting encounter group sensitivity sessions for trainees and supervisors. The company feels that the background of the counselors is a great asset to the program.

❀

A telephone company hires street youth, recruited by community agencies, using very few selection requirements. These employees are first placed in a vestibule training center program in a ghetto area. One of the most successful counselors in that program was originally referred to the company as a trainee. He was a drug user, but was highly recommended by a community worker. He went through the six-month training program successfully, and revealed excellent capacity for counseling, on a volunteer basis. He was subsequently hired as a counselor for the program. The trainees seem to identify with him, and he is useful to the entire training program because of his background.

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Relation of Counselor to Supervisor

The best counseling effort may be ineffective unless there is considerable understanding of and sensitivity toward the trainee by his supervisor, and/or a buddy system (discussed below) to give support on the job. This is best achieved if the supervisor has had some special training to help him understand the program and the counselor's role in helping with problems the supervisor feels he cannot handle. In this regard, it is very important

that the counselor not present himself as the trainee's advocate against the supervisor – although he is the trainee's advocate – but that he be perceived as a facilitator – interpreting the trainee and the supervisor to each other, promoting constructive problem-solving when difficulties arise, and providing someone to whom the supervisor can also turn for help with the trainee. In the more successful programs, supervisor, trainee and counselor are often able to work out a set of warnings and guidelines that may give the trainee more leeway at first than the regular employee on matters such as lateness or absenteeism, but that move progressively and firmly to bring him to normal standards.

In a number of companies the counselor is also the trainer or teacher; in others he has a close and continuing relationship with training staff through attendance at training sessions and regular conferences with staff, especially the trainee's OJT supervisor.

Buddy Systems

The buddy system is a practice in which a regular employee, preferably from the immediate work environment, accepts the role of assisting the trainee to cope with the new job. The buddy helps the new worker develop good work habits, explains how things are done, and takes responsibility for helping him in solving or seeking other assistance to solve the myriad personal problems that affect his work. For this system to work, buddies should be given some time off from production duties so that their responsibility does not become an additional burden to them.

The system seems to work best in smaller companies, where it is easy to identify workers who have good human relations skills and personal interest, and can work alongside the new trainees. Support and participation by the union – if there is one – and human relations training for the prospective buddy are also important.

Nationally, the Human Resources Development Institute (HRDI) of the AFL-CIO (American Federation of Labor-Congress of Industrial Organizations) sponsors a buddy training program and works with employers under the NAB JOBS Program. HRDI reports that where buddies have been trained and used by a company, retention rates for JOBS trainees have significantly increased. In June 1970, HRDI reported that more than 1,000 buddies working for 280 companies had been trained. About half of these were members of minority groups.

Psychological Counseling

Some companies initially built psychological counseling into their programs and emphasized the exploration of attitudes and feelings, particularly in the early days of the JOBS Program. Such sessions in sensitivity training or human relations were offered in the hope of overcoming hostile or negative feelings, increasing worker morale and strengthening commitment to the company. Recently, however, questions have been raised about the value of counseling programs that stress clinical components and focus on problems that are not necessarily job-related. Sometimes these programs have been found to err in assuming that all disadvantaged workers have unusual emotional problems and that those who do have them can be (or even want to be) assisted by corporate counselors, whose ultimate allegiance has to be to the needs of the company.

When employees need more than casual help with problems that are not job-related in some way, they probably should be referred to outside resources, such as service agencies in the community, unless the company ordinarily provides the given type of counseling to its general work force, not just to the disadvantaged.

Monitoring Counseling

Counseling should be monitored on a regular basis to assure that the goals of the program are being served. The challenge of developing an effective monitoring system is a hard one. Gains from counseling are intangible, and not easily measured. Gathering data usually requires time-consuming interviews. But managers should make regular efforts to get feedback about counseling results (and other training components) from trainees as well as from trainees' supervisors, to provide an ongoing basis for program review and for any needed redesign or redistribution.

CHILD CARE

Employer experience with disadvantaged women employees indicates that absenteeism or late arrival is often caused by trainees' difficulties in finding a way to care for their children during the work day. In most communities, adequate and inexpensive day care facilities are not available.

Most working mothers of young children rely on babysitters or relatives, or leave their children with friends. When a friend or relative is ill or does not turn up, the mother has to stay with her child and cannot report to work. Babysitter costs tend to be so high that the mother feels she is working only to pay the sitter.

The JOBS Program makes it possible for employers to provide limited child care services to employees who need them by allowing limited subsidies until the employee is able to assume the financial responsibility. Employers may elect to pay for private day care, use their influence to try to have public facilities established in the community, administer babysitting pools, or establish their own child care facilities, sometimes by entering into cooperative arrangements with other companies.*

Women's Bureau Report

The Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor held its first national conference on industrial child care in March 1970, and in 1971 issued a report that touched on some aspects of such programs (U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1971). According to the report, only some hospitals, a few companies, two unions and the federal government itself had conducted programs as of the date of publication.

Costs of programs: Weekly costs per child in existing corporate day care programs vary considerably – from $40 in one facility to $17.50 in another. Operating costs are reported as ranging from $1,000 to $2,800 annually per child.

Approaches: All of the existing industry day care programs operate at centers within, adjacent to, or adjoining plant facilities. Converted residences, renovated storage warehouses and rented schools are being used. Two companies constructed special facilities specifically for their programs.

Some companies restrict participation in their programs to the children of employees. Others admit employees' grandchildren as well, and some have opened their programs to children of non-employees.

*Information on day care can be obtained from various sources. In California, for instance, the State Department of Social Welfare is the licensing agency for child care centers. The local offices can be contacted for available services in day care and can identify companies that are experienced in operating their own day care facilities. For another good source of information, also see Urban Research Corporation's Industry and Day Care (1970).

Most of the centers accept children from two to six years of age. Special arrangements with state health departments are usually necessary for the enrollment of children younger than two years.

Capacity: The capacity of most centers ranges from 40 to 65 children, but most of the existing centers are operating at less than full capacity. Employers considering the establishment of day care facilities should be aware that enrollment is generally lower during school vacation periods, for families seem to make other arrangements for their children at those times. (One reason for permitting the enrollment of the children of non-employees is to allow for fuller use of existing facilities.)

Some programs operate on an eight-hour basis, but a few offer shorter days. All are open at least five days a week.

Staffing patterns: All centers have at least three employees. Social workers, health personnel (nurses, pediatricians, child psychiatrists) are sometimes retained on a part-time basis. And a few programs are staffed with nonprofessional workers as well, to offer career development opportunities to community residents.

Fees: About one-fourth of the centers in operation charge fees; more of them pass on the costs of hot lunches and snacks. The lowest fee reported is $1.00 a day per child; the highest is $37.50 a week per child.

Alternative Means of Providing for Child Care Facilities

Businesses can serve as leaders in presenting the need for day care facilities to community groups, and can serve as catalysts in forming them. Executives can offer their organizational talents, imagination and administrative know-how to such projects. They can help arrange mortgages, negotiate contracts and procure materials. They can donate equipment and staff resources. Or, if there is no opportunity to participate in community efforts to establish such facilities, they can help their employees who need day care for their children locate appropriate programs. (A number of proposed legislative bills have included provisions for child care funding, but to date none of this legislation has been passed.)

Some researchers suggest that about half the mothers who need child care prefer that it be provided in their own homes or in the homes of neighbors or nearby relatives. To meet such needs, only money is required. Institutional child care should not be the only available choice because it:

- Generally can't accommodate sick children, thus leading to considerable absenteeism from work
- May involve additional time, travel and expense for the parent

MEDICAL, DENTAL AND OPTOMETRIC SERVICES

Because some disadvantaged people have a higher incidence of health problems, and because they may be inexperienced in finding resources, support services include limited medical (and related) assistance. JOBS contracts reimburse employers for services provided trainees beyond those ordinarily provided for other employees. Such services as

diagnostic screening, immediate intervention when necessary, and referrals for long-term, extensive treatment are encouraged.

Some companies participating in JOBS have concluded that it makes sense to provide medical services directly rather than require trainees to find their own physicians. Absentee rates may be high when trainees have to rely on public hospital clinics for care, or when they suffer through illness rather than seek medical attention on their own. Such services can be provided directly by the company or subcontracted to other sources, public or private.

TRANSPORTATION

Companies have to face up to the problems of helping their disadvantaged trainees get to and from work. The journey to work, the route to follow, the bus or subway fare, are matters often overlooked or taken for granted. However, they can cause great difficulty for newly hired disadvantaged employees.

As business and industry have become more and more suburbanized, they are more remote from the very places where most disadvantaged workers live: the central city. A trip by bus from the inner city to the company's location may represent an enormous expenditure of time and money for the worker.

Because they have been poor and unemployed, many disadvantaged workers do not have cars, or have very old and unreliable cars whose frequent breakdowns result in lateness or absence from work. Usurious new and used car dealers add to the difficulties of minority people, in car buying. In some states, convictions for certain types of crimes result in the loss of a driving license, thus handicapping a person in the process of rehabilitation.

Sharing the Transportation Problem with the Trainee

The company's recruiter or interviewer, after asking where the candidate lives and how he would manage the journey to and from work, should offer to discuss the problem of transportation. After ascertaining the details (Does the candidate have a car? Is there adequate public transportation? Are company car pools available?), he should suggest solutions to the transportation problem.

Some companies draw up large-scale maps for new trainees showing the fastest and cheapest ways to reach the plant or office from their homes. Such maps can relieve the workers' anxiety about traveling blindly through unfamiliar parts of the city or suburb, and can, therefore, be helpful recruiting tools.

Providing Special Transportation Services

Suburban companies often have to provide more than advice and maps to disadvantaged workers. They may need to provide transportation directly, or indirectly through subsidies. When they do so, the JOBS Program allows for reimbursement for transportation services until the trainee is able to assume the financial responsibility.

Some companies have set up special car pools, offering rides with specially designated drivers or with regular workers. Others have prevailed upon municipal transit officials to reschedule bus routes, establish new ones to meet the needs of trainees or expand service on existing routes. Other possible solutions are to contract with private bus lines, hire shuttle buses, or provide trainees with funds for bus, subway or taxi fares.

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An airplane manufacturer provided buses with pick-up service at the trainee's door during training – to get out from the city to the training

center. These buses were used partly to symbolize the need for punctuality and regular attendance. Each small bus, carrying 11 trainees, also had a counselor aboard who used the travel time for group discussion of work and other problems.

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When a Midwestern electronics firm made its commitment of 800 jobs to NAB, it appointed a full-time transportation coordinator who sent a questionnaire to 12,000 employees asking if they would assist fellow employees living near them to get to work. Two hundred employees volunteered, thus augmenting the 800 existing carpools.

The company also persuaded the local public transit system to change bus schedules and alter routes to help trainees get to work.

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LEGAL AID

Because disadvantaged people often have problems involving understanding or coping with the law, companies may need to provide them with legal aid. Realizing that legal problems can cause absenteeism and turnover, many companies have assigned their legal staffs to counsel disadvantaged trainees, when requested. The courts, as well as probation and parole officers, can be very helpful in assisting their clients to remain on the job. Programs should not interfere with the legal process, but program management should know how intervention to insure due process and give support can benefit trainees who are prone to become entangled with the law.

Disadvantaged employees may also need help in answering civil actions resulting from non-payment of debts. Some may need an arrangement to permit them time off for court-related matters, without unduly penalizing them.

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One large company in Pittsburgh has a lawyer on retainer who is on call to go "downtown" and negotiate with authorities when an employee is involved with the law.

❀

Another corporation has established a legal services department whose services are available to trainees while in training and after they are on the job. Two full-time counselors spend much of their time in the courts and working with law enforcement agencies. Trainees are provided assistance on such matters as garnishments, traffic offenses and family support. If a trainee is charged with a crime, an attempt is made to intervene in the judicial process before arraignment. Where it seems warranted, counselors try to prevent incarceration, and ask the court to release a person to the company's training program, with the corporation responsible.

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One company reported that many of its younger trainees had outstanding warrants for arrest for traffic violations when they were hired. Through the efforts of its own counsel, the company was able to get 59 of 60 warrants withdrawn by arranging to have fines paid in weekly installments. Not only did the trainees benefit, but the court received $1,800 in fines that it might never have received, and taxpayers were thereby saved custodial costs that would have resulted from non-payment.

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Orientation and counseling at a Midwestern telephone company regularly include speakers from company credit union and legal staff, followed by discussions of problems and solutions on court proceedings, child support, garnishment, credit and other financial matters. Counselors continue to be available to the trainee once he goes on the job, but do not volunteer help unless requested.

FINANCIAL ADVICE

Some companies offer consumer economics, credit buying and financial management instruction as part of their orientation programs. (JOBS contracts do not reimburse employers for providing money management services, as such, th ugh financial matters may be discussed during regular orientation or counseling.)

Many companies sponsor credit unions for their employees, to encourage prudent financial habits. Some disadvantaged people do not know what a credit union is, or how to use it. Some orientation programs contain a component designed to help new employees meet their financial obligations, either by providing short-term, seed money loans to tide employees over the period of initial expenses associated with going to work, or by offering advice on how to consolidate debts, save money and make purchases. Trainees can be helped (where they need and want it) to make out a budget and work out equitable payments to creditors.

SUBCONTRACTING FOR SUPPORT SERVICES

Because the range of support services is potentially quite wide and because JOBS contracts permit the use of subcontractors, some companies use outside firms rather than in-house personnel. There are many consulting firms with the technical capability needed for setting up and operating support service programs.

Companies are likely to find subcontracts useful if:

- The company wants to run a substantial program and lacks the expertise that would enable it to start up a program right away– it can learn how to conduct a program by using its experience with a subcontractor as training
- The company has had no experience with government contracting procedures, and feels the need for guidance in applying for and securing a JOBS award, as well as complying with its provisions
- The company joins a consortium that uses a subcontractor and is guided by the management of the consortium
- The size of the company is such that it lacks the internal resources to deal with potential people problems

One disadvantage of using outside training resources is the tendency of trainees to identify with the training program and its staff, rather than with the company.

Another serious disadvantage is that outside training resources often do not have a complete enough understanding of an individual company to orient trainees adequately. If supervisory and other company personnel are not sufficiently involved in the program, this adds to problems of trainee acceptance. A close and intertwined company-subcontractor relationship is necessary if support services are to be an effective

component of training. It is,therefore, very important that hiring a subcontractor not be a signal for company personnel to abandon the training to outsiders. Subcontracted personnel supplement the capability of company personnel for training; they should not and cannot replace company personnel or assume their ultimate responsibility for training.

Employers should not lose control of their program, for which they ultimately are responsible. Subcontractors should not administer programs or handle money or invoices, since the employer, as contractor, is liable for financial administration.

One large company relied on an outside training company when it started a JOBS Program and found that trainees established rapport with the outside instructors but not necessarily with the company. It then decided to use its own personnel for training. In doing so, it reduced the training period from 17 to 10 weeks,* and was able to maintain standards in performance and retention; 74% of 600 JOBS trainees remained on the job.

Negotiating the Subcontract

Many subcontracts for support services state that services will be provided "as needed." But such vague language can lead to trouble. Who decides what is needed? The employer? The subcontractor? A company and its subcontractor should have a written agreement about how this determination will be made and monitored. Whatever the specifics of the agreement, direct contact with the trainees and their supervisors is the only effective way for an employer to determine whether they are receiving the services they need.

Choosing the Subcontractor

Subcontractors should be chosen with the same care used in all other business decisions. There are a great many firms that specialize in operating JOBS Programs for industry. Your NAB Metro office can assist you in locating some in your area. After identifying prospective subcontractors, standard procedures associated with the purchase of services should be employed.

Compare the quality and costs of services offered by each subcontractor. Assess the professional record of bidding subcontractors, and review the references from past clients that they submit. If possible, ask companies in your area that have used the bidder to provide their own assessments of their experiences. Check out the reputation of the subcontractor with the disadvantaged groups he will serve.

Especially for smaller companies, private and public agencies – family service clinics, Department of Vocational Rehabilitation (DVR), ES, CEP, EEOC, Fair Employment Practice Commission (FEPC) and other human rights agencies – might be engaged to provide some parts of support services. Their capabilities tend to be uneven and they should be chosen cautiously and monitored carefully.

It is not possible to write very specific contracts for support services. Flexibility is needed to provide for individual needs. However, subcontracts can be made more specific by indicating that for a given number of trainees there should be a specified number of training and support staff who should have specified qualifications, and that there should be provisions for training company staff.

*When less time is used than is called for in the contract, an adjustment must be made to modify the amount of reimbursement due for the training.

Monitoring the Subcontractor

Companies that hire subcontractors must provide for systematic monitoring of the subcontractors' activities. Monitoring can include copies of daily reports and attendance records that keep track of the services being supplied to trainees and their attendance at classes, and discussions and periodic conferences with individual trainees or trainee groups to get feedback about the quality of services being provided.

Corporate executives must bear in mind that in JOBS contracts the employer is given ultimate responsibility for his program, and is held responsible for its progress. Thus, for example, under extreme conditions, an employer might be called upon to reimburse the federal government for support services provided by a subcontractor that were deemed to be inappropriate or deficient. They must monitor to insure that trainees are receiving quality services and to protect themselves vis-a-vis their own contractual obligations.

CHECK-LIST SUMMARY

- Support services should be oriented to the practical goals of JOBS: sustained employment and training required to yield full productivity levels.
- Support services should be job-related.
- Decisions about which support services are needed should be individualized, with the trainees (when possible) sharing in the decision concerning which services they need.

Orientation

1. Orientation is most advantageous if focused on the particular company, rather than being a general orientation to the world of work.
2. Optimally an orientation program will cover: company background; requirements of specific job; wages, benefits and working conditions; rules and regulations; tour of plant; availability of support services; opportunity to meet supervisor; information concerning special training and opportunities.
3. Former trainees who are now members of the company's stable work force, as well as the job supervisors, make credible participants in an orientation program.
4. To the extent possible, trainees should participate through active discussion of topics.

Counseling

1. Counseling should focus on job-related problems (unless unusual circumstances warrant its extending to other problems).
2. The counselor should be alert to the need for building trainee independence.
3. Former trainees constitute a rich resource for counseling personnel.
4. Professional training is not mandatory for a counselor to serve effectively within the context of this program; individuals with suitable personal attributes and experience can become effective counselors with some special guidance and training.
5. There should be provision for a reasonable amount of follow-up counseling once the trainee gets on the job.
6. The counselor should facilitate (rather than usurp) the supervisor's relationship with the trainee.

Subcontracting of Support Services

1. Many categories of support services (particularly medical, legal aid, child care, etc.) lie outside the company's expertise and are more advantageously subcontracted.
2. In utilizing subcontractors, particular attention should be paid to avoiding fragmenting the program – from the point of view of the trainee's experience – and to making sure that the subcontractor has accurate and realistic information concerning the operations and policies of the prime contractor, so that all training components are relevant to company settings.
3. The performance of subcontractors must be monitored by the contracting company.

Chapter VII

CONDUCTING UPGRADING PROGRAMS

Workers who are already part of a labor force can be prepared for advancement through upgrading programs. Upgrading training opportunities are desirable both for workers who have entered the work force through conventional channels and for those who have had special basic skills training such as that provided in a JOBS Program. Basic skills training has the special purpose of enabling disadvantaged persons to gain access to good jobs. Generally, upgrading programs can provide opportunities for all workers to better themselves. In particular, they are useful as a vehicle for Affirmative Action efforts.*

During training for upgrading, emphasis is shifted from mastering the current job to building the employee's confidence and developing his skills, to enable him to reach higher goals within his range of capabilities or learning potential. Upgrading training should strengthen the motivation of employees so that they will think in terms of continued education. For career development, for effective motivation, employees must have confidence that good performance will earn opportunity for promotion.

The 1972 JOBS Upgrading Program provides reimbursement for extraordinary services to enable entry-level workers to qualify for promotion. Companies may upgrade up to 25 percent of their work force without regard to previous NAB participation. Normally, employee eligibility is determined by an income falling below the near-poverty index ($5,000 for a family of four or less) and having worked 12 months with the current employer without advancement. Exceptions can be granted where entry-level wages exceed this index, or where minority group members are being moved into an area of under-representation.

The JOBS definition of upgrading includes a better job and wage increase of at least seven percent over the amount that merely continuing employment would earn. If the prevailing wage represents an increase of more than seven percent, the prevailing wage must be granted. Wage increases must be granted prior to on-the-job training. If granted at the beginning of the program, the increased wages are a basis for all reimbursement; otherwise the current wage is used.

None of the JOBS services is mandatory. Subject to various conditions and limitations, the following services are available: on-the-job training, English as a second language, job-related education, special counseling, supervisory orientation, vestibule training.

ADVANTAGES OF AN UPGRADING PROGRAM

The advantages of providing an upgrading program are much the same as those listed for special manpower programs in general. Training workers for more skilled and responsible jobs in an expanding work force is the most obvious application of such a program. However, upgrading can be addressed to other important needs.

Increase Productivity

Upgrading training makes possible the consolidation and restructuring of work to promote greater efficiency and productivity.

"A Cleveland foundry, experiencing lagging productivity, told the Mayor's office of plans to shut down its local facility. The problem was referred to

*Groups such as Skill Advancement, Inc. (1969) and Humanic Designs Corp. (1969, 1970, 1971a, 1971b) have developed intensive approaches to upgrading, including the technique known as High Intensity Training (HIT).

the Skills Upgrading in Cleveland (SUIC) project which convinced management to undertake an intensive analysis of the company's production process and occupational structure. This study, financed by both the company and SUIC, has resulted in a major reorganization of the occupational structure into seven basic skill clusters. A training curriculum for each cluster has been developed, and company supervisors are receiving instruction in the use of the materials (Kirsch & Cooke, 1971)."

❀

Reduce Turnover

A major reason for high turnover of disadvantaged workers in some companies is that job-switching is their only way of finding higher paying positions when promotion ladders are restricted, non-existent, or are closed to them. For example, companies that do not provide upgrading opportunities have had lower retention rates in the JOBS Program than those that do. Corporate decision-makers, therefore, are encouraged to explore thoroughly the feasibility of upgrading plans. They should not be surprised at high turnover among new hires who know from the start that they have nothing more to offer in the long run than dead-end jobs.

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A division of Pacific Gas and Electric Company, in Oakland, California, was baffled by the high turnover rates among the disadvantaged workers hired under its JOBS Program. After some unsuccessful efforts to improve the program, and thus reduce turnover, the company concluded that the root of the problem was that trainees who were working in field construction jobs requiring heavy manual labor could not see their opportunities of getting into the apprenticeship system, a major route to better jobs in the company.

The company now helps trainees qualify for apprenticeship exams, with very positive results.

❀

A shipyard had very high turnover among its entry-level JOBS trainees (and among other entry-level employees as well). Exit interviews revealed that workers were discouraged by the two-year wait required before the first step upward in pay and job classification. As a result, the company instituted a JOBS Upgrading Program to enable unskilled workers to move up two levels within one year.

❀

Equalize Opportunity

Most companies state that once disadvantaged employees complete their training and move into the regular work force, they compete for promotional opportunities on the same basis as all other employees. Often, promotion is controlled by a union contract. A closer view of company experience suggests that in many cases the (formerly) disadvantaged or minority employee does not compete on an equal basis for promotional opportunities, and that he will not compete equally unless specific company efforts are made to provide such opportunity, and, where necessary, special training.

Meet EEO Requirements

While few companies keep separate records on the promotions of different kinds of workers, many cite promotions of minority workers, as is required increasingly by government equal employment regulations. Affirmative Action policies require evidence

that federal contractors are providing upgrading opportunities for minority employees and are engaged in breaking down seniority and union barriers that result in de facto racial exclusion.* A JOBS Upgrading Program can help companies comply.

❀

"On the basis of a recent court decision regarding discriminatory practices in industry, many Southern employers have been forced to restructure and integrate separate career lines formerly based on race. In one paper mill, the previously all-black woodyard progression which had no educational requirements, was structured into the regular plant job ladder which required a tenth-grade education. Semi-literate blacks working in the woodyard were assisted in improving their reading and mathematical skills through an off-hours remedial program which qualified them for promotion into the plant progression. Movement into this new sequence involved no loss of pay or seniority for these men (Kirsch & Cooke, 1971)."

❀

Improve Company Practices

If promotional opportunities are offered to formerly disadvantaged workers, it is important to provide the same opportunities to all other workers. In many companies there will be employees in the regular work force who have been locked into dead-end jobs and denied opportunities for advancement for years. Any special upgrading program should become part of a company's basic promotional system.

❀

As a result of its program for hiring the disadvantaged, one hotel in New York City expanded counseling services to the entire work force to help them learn about opportunities for advancement. Counselors were stationed in the employees' cafeteria during the lunch hour, and were thus easily accessible. Counselors had lists of all job openings, and could refer employees to training programs that would qualify them for better jobs.

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"Tabulated indices of employee aspirations, such as those compiled by Cincinnati Milacron and Macy's in New York, serve to heighten management awareness of the occupational desires of the work force. These systems rely on periodic interviews between supervisors and employees in which each worker notes the kind of job or departmental transfer he would like. In large firms such as these, interview data are computer-processed and used to facilitate placement and, in the case of Milacron, the development of training programs (Kirsch & Cooke, 1971)."

❀

COMPONENTS OF UPGRADING PROGRAMS

In conducting an upgrading program, several approaches are available:

Job Ladders

Job ladders describe paths to advancement. Thus, an employee hired as a clerical assistant should be told at the outset about his potential job ladder: from clerical assistant to clerk to senior clerk to group chief to chief clerk. A rise in pay rate as well as job responsibility and status would accompany each ascending rung on the job ladder.

*Some federal contractors have been found liable for back pay when found guilty of discriminatory upgrading practices.

Some companies have clear lines of job progression, but often workers at one level (for example, blue-collar jobs) are unable to progress to higher levels (white-collar), or even to move laterally out of their own departmental units to other job opportunities. Mobility may be hindered by traditional employer practices and by union seniority requirements. Job ladders generally can be designed with the cooperation of unions to correct these problems.

In one large company, where there are career ladders in every division, 32 of 130 JOBS trainees were upgraded in their first year of work. As they proved capable, promotional opportunities opened for them. Other companies with regular career ladders report similar movement for their disadvantaged workers.

"A career mapping system has been developed by the Western Regional Office of the Internal Revenue Service. All employees receive the guides to the system which describe major job clusters, chart the career alternatives, outline qualifications needed for advancement from one job level or progression to another, explain training resources available both within and outside the organization, and instruct employees on procedures for applying for special training. These easy-to-read guides are an important component of initial orientation activities and support the on-going personnel development work of the supervisors (Kirsch & Cooke, 1971)."

Supplementary OJT

After the employee has completed his basic skills training, supplementary OJT should begin. It can be provided in special short courses or as a regular part of the job, treating the employee, regardless of his current level, as an apprentice preparing for advancement to the next higher level.

Signal Oil & Gas Company, at its refinery in Houston, set up a special training program, and created a new intermediate-level job classification to help move long-service, unskilled laborers, whose jobs had been eliminated by changing technology, into better paying, more productive positions. The laborers—all black or Mexican-American—were protected from layoff by seniority. Most were functionally illiterate. The men were required to attend classes in reading and mathematics during working hours and promised that they would be considered qualified for promotion if they completed the course. Within six months, more than half completed the course and were upgraded to jobs in the operations department, with salary increases of nearly $1.00 per hour. The rest were upgraded over the next year.

"Several airlines have developed management-potential identification programs. Supervisors recommend their subordinates for enrollment in a problem-solving and leadership techniques course conducted by a central training staff. Although the actual promotion for the individual may be a year or two away, this course serves the dual purpose of exposing the employee to the skills he will need for future assignments, and permitting management to acquire a more detailed picture of the employee's capabilities. Supervisors are informed that subordinate development is an important part of their job and that assessment of their performance as

managers will be based, in part, on the success of the people who passed through their department (Kirsch & Cooke, 1971)."

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Special Funds

Providing scholarship or tuition funds to enable employees to pursue further formal education after hours can enhance their abilities to advance on the job.

Supervisory Involvement

If a genuine upgrading program exists, and there are real opportunities for upward movement, supervisors can greatly assist disadvantaged employees. They can inform them of the job possibilities up the ladder, direct them to training programs, encourage and motivate them to improve their skills. And they can, of course, recommend them for advancement.

❀

Recognizing that promotions are a major incentive for retaining disadvantaged new employees, a large life insurance company made supervisors responsible not only for the trainee's successful entry job preparation, but also for "at least one promotion in two years." Supervisors knew that their own progress in the company would be linked to their success in training and developing their subordinates.

❀

Job Restructuring

Where the basic job structure and traditional methods of production create dull, low-paying, unpleasant entry jobs and little upgrading opportunity for the disadvantaged (and other low-skill workers), some companies have experimented with approaches to job restructuring or job enrichment to help reduce turnover and absenteeism and provide greater worker motivation.

❀

"Firms with great awareness of job enrichment techniques have striven to maximize the individual's freedom from structure and permit the worker to operate 'by objectives.' For example, Tektronix emphasizes unit construction, thus freeing employees from the rigidities of assembly line production and encouraging them to use their own judgement in building products according to a broad range of process techniques as long as quality and time standards are met. Texas Instruments finds that this approach is enhanced by heavy injections of classroom training which provide the worker with the skills necessary to best structure his job (Kirsch & Cooke, 1971)."

❀

BREAKING THE CREDENTIALS BARRIER

Upgrading is designed to give workers an opportunity to break the credentials barrier. When employees are being screened out of advancement opportunities on the grounds that they lack credentials, upgrading training can provide them with the credentials they need to advance. The basic premise of upgrading programs is that employees need help in order to take advantage of such opportunities. Left to their own devices, only a few disadvantaged workers will be able to take advantage of upgrading possibilities.

Advancement to a higher skilled position frequently requires the upgrading of educational skills. For example, in some companies workers need to be able to cope with proportions and fractions in order to be able to advance, but not to qualify for lower level jobs. In others, workers may need to know something of basic chemistry and chemical reactions in order to advance. In such cases, the only way companies can enable workers to qualify is to encourage them to seek such education on their own or to provide it for them.

A company with a record of nearly all-white employment felt the need for upgrading some black employees to supervisory positions in order to help new minority trainees believe in the opportunity for themselves in the company. Advancement was a problem, because union rules prevented flexibility in promotion, and it was also felt that the black employees might not yet have sufficient experience to qualify for supervision.

The company tried to promote a few black employees after one year, risking severe employee and union reactions against preferential treatment. The newly promoted foremen could not take on the complex responsibilities of supervision. One problem was a misconception of authority. The men were too eager to play the heavy-handed "Big Boss." Some started to run street games (numbers) in the plant.

The company has now started a special "foreman training internship" for ex-JOBS trainees, which is working very well. Candidates for foreman training are recommended by their supervisors, and selected on the basis of interview, review of work record, general stability, work attitude and ambition, after one year of work. The candidate is promoted to a "clerk" position—an exempt, non-union job. He is trained for and performs the job of clerk, but at the same time receives training in supervisory responsibilities, scheduling, planning and expediting, and gets sensitivity training to help him become sensitized to problems of supervising whites.

The next step is assignment as an assistant to a supervising foreman. The candidate holds this job with foremen in different functions throughout the plant, and gets special help in any areas of weakness which show up. When the candidate is identified as promotable, usually six months to one year after starting the program, factory managers are notified, and he is interviewed for supervisory openings. At this point the ex-JOBS candidate is evaluated by the manager on a competitive basis with all other job candidates.

"Top management at Georgia Kraft Company held individual meetings with selected black workers to encourage their participation in a special after-hours remedial education program. Since no immediate promotion could be offered due to the plant's low turnover, workers strongly resisted training and voiced fear of eventual promotion into traditionally all-white departments. By demonstrating a personal interest in the career opportunities of these men, management succeeded in overcoming initial resistance (Kirsch & Cooke, 1971)."

CHECK-LIST SUMMARY

1. Develop entry-level positions that have the potential for serving as a stepping stone to some specified degree of advancement.

2. Develop job ladders and career maps that link entry-level positions to higher positions.

3. Perform task analyses to restructure jobs in a sequence that will lend itself to upgrading training. Enrich jobs and train employees to do them.

4. Provide training that is directly related to entry into higher level jobs.

5. Whenever practicable, train and upgrade rather than recruit trained employees from elsewhere.

6. Encourage employees to voice their aspirations and try to provide corresponding opportunities.

7. Insure that training for advancement is available to all employees and keep them informed of opportunities.

8. Provide outside training resources for the employee when they cannot be provided within the company.

9. Do away with arbitrary credentials barriers and link educational opportunities to opportunities for advancement.

Chapter VIII

FORMING A CONSORTIUM

When a company is not able to conduct all aspects of a manpower training program itself, one solution to the problem is to participate with other local companies in forming a consortium. Or, it may be possible to join an existing consortium if there is one already functioning in the vicinity. Since the consortium as a training vehicle has been utilized almost exclusively in connection with JOBS contract funding, it will be discussed in that context. However, it is a model that can be adapted to other financial arrangements.

WHAT IS A CONSORTIUM?

A consortium is an organization formed to represent a group of companies contracting with the Department of Labor to hire and train disadvantaged persons. Typically, a consortium is formed under the aegis of a non-profit organization or is created when a company takes the leadership in organizing a cooperative effort with others.

REASONS FOR FORMING A CONSORTIUM

Companies without the administrative or program staff, or without financial resources to undertake JOBS participation on their own, can participate through a consortium. A consortium can reduce the burden on member companies by relieving them of the need to individually undertake:

- Proposal preparation
- Administrative and reporting procedures
- Negotiation with DOL
- Outreach and recruitment
- Publicity and promotion
- Skills training (pre-OJT)
- Support services

It is not necessary for a company to form or join a consortium in order to subcontract for support services. Companies can subcontract individually or in a joint venture with other individual companies without establishing any formal consortium.

When a number of companies are each hiring a small number of employees, a group effort may be the most economical and efficient manner of providing special training and services. Support services jointly provided by a consortium may include such things as:

- A cooperative child care assistance program
- Counselors for personal counseling
- Medical services
- Transportation arrangements from inner city locations to outlying industrial complexes
- Job-related education

- Work orientation programs
- Pre-vocational training
- Supervisory training

Although a consortium may undertake these activities on behalf of the participating companies, final legal responsibility for JOBS contract performance rests with the companies. However, the centralized uniform system of record-keeping installed by consortium management reduces the amount of administrative paperwork required of individual companies.

A consortium can provide a centrally supported manpower resource to a local business community that many companies, particularly smaller ones, could not maintain separately. Thus, a consortium can be a source of needed manpower.

A consortium also enables the local business community or a group of companies to consolidate knowledge and resources by pooling their training personnel and know-how, rather than being forced to compete with one another.

Finally, consortia are permitted great discretion in allocating funds internally. Thus, they can respond flexibly to varying needs for support services and OJT, and varying numbers of training slots.

BENEFITS TO THE COMMUNITY

A consortium offers benefits to the community by helping local businesses satisfy local needs for employment and training, and by strengthening the community organization (for example, a chamber of commerce) that may be its sponsor. In particular, a consortium can provide a vehicle for effective community action to help disadvantaged groups, and for building good relations with minority communities.

ARGUMENTS AGAINST FORMING A CONSORTIUM

Some factors have been found to diminish the potential effectiveness of a consortium; for example:

- When there is small chance of cooperation among participating companies, a consortium is not a good idea. Thus, when competition among companies is strong and communication channels between them are limited, consortium administration may have a difficult time getting started.
- When companies cannot guarantee filling job openings on schedule, serious operating and financial problems are created for a consortium. Filling job openings at the proper times requires that company management be committed to the program and view the trainees as hires.
- When the labor force requirements of candidate companies are not compatible, a consortium cannot efficiently manage the training. When one company needs file clerks, another needs draftsmen, another typists, and another tellers, training for each of these job categories presents problems in coordination for the consortium. The more varied the manpower needs and kinds of companies, the more sophisticated the program planning and management must be.
- When there are fewer than a total of 100 jobs definitely available in member companies, starting a consortium may be uneconomical, although there are quite a few consortia much smaller in scope.

Consortia can be complex operations, and require capable management. They should not be attempted without the help of good organizing, coordinating and monitoring talent.

ESTABLISHING A CONSORTIUM

Any number of small companies may join together to form a consortium. The following guidelines govern participation:

- Each company that would be a member of the consortium must be individually eligible and competent to participate.
- Companies must be private, for-profit companies or eligible non-profit organizations.
- Like other employees hired under individual JOBS contracts, employees hired under a consortium contract must be employed from the first day by a participating, employing member of the consortium.
- Under the Consortium Agreement, the participating companies jointly conduct or provide such training or services as they agree upon, and as set forth in their joint proposal.

Some Basic Questions to Be Resolved by Potential Consortium Members

Answers to the following questions will need to be provided by companies interested in establishing a consortium, before arrangements can be completed:

- What will be the geographical boundaries of the consortium? The boundaries should be related to the size of the region served, the labor force available in the region, and the location of interested companies. A large city might have several consortia, as long as they are not in conflict with one another; a small town might need to share one consortium with another town in order to make a go of it. Economics will be a deciding factor, along with ease of communications.
- Where might be a possible location of consortium headquarters and sites for those training elements not carried out at the companies? The location should be convenient for trainees as well as participating companies. Sometimes companies can make space available, but usually special facilities are leased.
- What shall be the procedure for recruitment and selection of the consortium director? The director should be a good administrator, but should also know the manpower training field.
- How will the director be paid, if selected prior to funding of contract? Sometimes it is necessary for companies to set up a special fund for the start-up period. Some consortia require an initial contribution by participating employers to signify their commitment.
- Who will have responsibility for preparation and writing of contract proposals, including negotiation and selection of support service contracts? Some consortia have delegated this role to a few companies; others have subcontracted to an outside firm with experience in the field.

Full Commitment by All Participants

Full commitment to the goals of the NAB JOBS Program is required of all JOBS consortium participants. This commitment is an essential ingredient for success.

All participants must understand that the consortium is their program, albeit a joint program.

Each participating company retains basic responsibility for correct and effective implementation.

Five Key Steps

Companies interested in participating in a consortium need to take the following five steps:

1. Secure an agreement from a sponsoring organization, or a group of employers in either a like or unlike activity, to participate in a program for hiring and training the hard-core disadvantaged.

2. Establish an executive committee (consortium committee) to formulate the organization into a consortium and write the JOBS proposal. All of the DOL requirements for a sound contract must be understood in order to write an adequate, thoroughly thought-through proposal. (The local NAB Metro provides such detailed information.)

3. Secure participation from a sufficient number of employers to insure that there will be enough training slots available to support the employment of a director and staff. Employers should have available complete and accurate information about the consortium – preferably written into a document that can be used for marketing and that can then become the basis for a signed Consortium Agreement.

4. Devise a plan for recruiting and hiring a project director to write and operate the program, at the earliest possible date.

5. Make certain that all participating companies within the consortium understand that the consortium director has the authority to act for their company as expressed in the Consortium Agreement. Unless this stipulation is established and upheld, there is very little possibility for success.

NAB and State Employment Service CSRs will assist the project director and/or executive committee in preparing the support service and administrative portions of the JOBS contract. The participating employers, with NAB assistance, must prepare job descriptions, job training outlines, induction schedules and an assessment of the job-related educational requirements for each job category. The consortium manager should coordinate these activities to insure that the project is properly covered and prepared, and that a workable management plan is devised. He should contact the DOL funding source early in planning to make certain that the plans conform to guidelines.

Selecting and Appointing a Program Director

Responsibility for preparation of the training plan and contract proposal may be delegated to a program director in cases where it is possible to recruit and hire an individual at this stage. The program director and operating staff will carry the major responsibility for coordinating day-to-day operations once the training contract has been executed and the program is under way.* For the program to succeed, all participating companies should accept the authority of the consortium's program director to act for their company, as expressed in the Consortium Agreement.

*DOL does not allow the bidder (prime contractor) to be the provider of support services, since it is difficult for the bidder to take corrective action on problems regarding the provision of services, if he is indeed the provider of these services. Also, the prime contractor must perform the program director's functions rather than subcontract this management authority.

Detailed OJT plans should be worked out between the program director and each employer (with participating supervisors). At every stage, however, it is imperative that the operational staff report on a regular basis to a fully empowered consortium board of directors in order to insure that the sharing of responsibility among those involved does not compromise accountability for adequate planning and operation. Since the program director is in charge of operations, he should assume the ultimate responsibility for all administrative duties connected with providing support services, as covered in the proposal. The responsibility rests with the participating companies for fulfilling the remaining aspects of the JOBS contract. They must be kept informed (usually, through the board of directors) of the program's status and progress, and continue to take responsibility by monitoring the program.

All Participants Should Be Involved in Program Planning and Design

Wherever it is practical, each participating company should have the opportunity and be encouraged to participate in the design and planning of programs. Some consortia have created committees to plan skills training, support services, and other program components, and have staffed these committees with representatives of participating companies to assure that the ideas and needs of participants will be taken into account.

Assuring Financial Viability

In a consortium, each participating company has legal, financial and operational responsibilities, as spelled out in the contract with the Department of Labor. It is essential that these responsibilities be clearly understood by each company. The consortium should develop a sound financial projection for the length of the contract. Lack of good financial planning may place the consortium in jeopardy and create problems for participating companies.

The consortium, it should be noted, will have to shoulder financial responsibility during the first few months of the project — until funds are made available by the Department of Labor. Accordingly, it will be necessary for member companies to plan for this interim period, and arrange for an adequate (temporary) pool of funds to cover initial expenses such as payroll, costs of materials, etc. Experience has shown that a line of credit of up to 10 percent of the total face value of the contract is needed by noncapitalized sponsoring entities to cover the front-end load common to JOBS contracts.

Member companies should also agree on contingency plans for substituting alternative job slots for those slots that companies find they cannot fill. Such plans are necessary to insure the meeting of time schedules and stabilizing the dollar volume of the entire project.

Other Required Steps

Consortium management will need to address many of the same questions that face companies operating their own NAB JOBS Programs, such as:

- Establishing recruiting objectives and thoroughly training recruiters
- Identifying and defining jobs to be offered
- Developing curricula for skills and orientation training

They can be helped to plan by:

- Gathering information about other similar programs from NAB Metros and by visiting such programs

- Asking NAB Metros to make presentations about the consortium model, to orient participating companies
- Requesting guidance from local ES offices in matters pertaining to job analysis, disadvantaged target groups, and plans for recruiting
- Identifying community educational, training and support service resources that may be helpful to the consortium and to individual employers (who should be given a list of such resources)

In addition, during the planning and start-up period, consortium managers will need to:

- Prepare a list of participating companies and their employer (EIN and IRS) numbers, and instructions on how to obtain a third-party financial statement if the company is not listed with Dun & Bradstreet
- Prepare a consortium organization chart
- Define relationships between consortium administration and participating companies (the principles of operation - program policy - should be explicit and understood by all)
- Establish a framework for liaison on a day-to-day basis with consortium administration (participants should establish a relationship with the person in consortium management to whom they will go when problems occur)
- Set up a committee or task force system for planning, maintaining and monitoring the consortium by participating companies
- Plan periodic employer meetings to review program objectives and program development
- Establish a timetable for program implementation

EMPLOYEES MUST IDENTIFY WITH EMPLOYERS AND NOT THE CONSORTIUM

A possible danger with the consortium is lack of employee identification with the company, because of the use of a training center during trainee orientation. If a trainee identifies with the center rather than the company, he may experience confusion or apprehension when he leaves the center and starts OJT.

Every effort should be made to avoid isolation of the new employee and his training program from the company. During orientation, this can be accomplished in several ways:

- The training program staff can be made thoroughly familiar with the companies, their environment and needs by visiting work sites and talking to managers and supervisors.
- The trainee can be exposed to the company environment by regularly spending some hours or days on the job even before he goes to the company setting for OJT.
- Topics that are strictly company-oriented should be discussed in small groups with the supervisors themselves or company personnel.

Contents of the orientation program that will be common to all jobs - for example, discussions concerning motivation to succeed, responsibilities, prejudice, coping with legal

and financial problems – can be dealt with by the consortium training staff at the training site.

✱

Safeway Stores, San Francisco Division, started with a pledge of 25 job slots to be filled with trainees from the Lockheed consortium.

In starting the program, Safeway located within the Lockheed consortium two staff men with prior food experience; one was a former store manager, the other a food purchaser. These men went to Safeway's training center for a week of training. Then they went to a Safeway store and carefully checked and sketched its layout. After this, they developed the consortium curriculum. Safeway donated some check-out stands and the consortium rented scales and other equipment.

The first group of trainees received four weeks of training at the consortium in Safeway's procedures, price lists, etc. Then the trainees received an additional week of instruction in Safeway's own school with its regular new hires. All were able to successfully complete the training. Safeway eventually increased its pledge and loaned Lockheed all equipment needed in training.

The Safeway program illustrates the importance of a consortium's individualized approach to training for an employer's needs. One industrial trainer – a man with 10 years' experience in the field – works with instructors to develop a flexible and constantly changing curriculum. They try to stay current with employer needs on procedures (employers are asked to notify instructors of any changes) and so adjust to trainee needs.

❀

COUNSELING IN THE CONSORTIUM

Counseling is crucial in a consortium. Counselors should have full company cooperation and should act as the bridge between the training center and each company, and sometimes between supervisor and trainee.

Since a consortium may have 30 or more member companies and a counseling staff of perhaps five, each counselor must work with trainees for several companies. The kind of knowledge of the job and company frequently required of counselors has prompted some companies to hire counselors from their own or union ranks, and some companies have arranged to have their own counselors and consortium counselors work cooperatively in their program.

Counseling is an activity that in most cases is more effectively conducted at the job site, where the counselor can observe the work setting, sense the atmosphere, and talk to the supervisor and workers if necessary. This requires mobility on the part of the counselor, so that he can visit several companies every day. By properly assigning companies to each counselor, the amount of traveling can be kept to a minimum.

✱

A member of the Lockheed consortium gives much credit to the follow-up counseling provided by the consortium for the successful retention and performance of JOBS trainees. Counselors check in with employees twice weekly during the OJT period. Supervisors know the counselors and can call them for help at any time. The company will not terminate a trainee unless the counselor has tried to work out problems and feels that he has done all he can.

✱

One union-sponsored consortium resolved its counselors' logistics problems by assigning one counselor to a limited number of employers, so that a counselor could be with each employee a part of each day in a given area.

In one case, a consortium solved the problem of lack of facilities for privacy in counseling by providing the counselor with a mobile office (a van outfitted as a consulting room), which he could drive to various job sites.

PARTICIPATING COMPANIES NEED NOT BE SMALL

Consortium membership is essentially for small companies, but membership should not be based on size alone. The deciding factor should be whether or not a company has the resources to undertake a JOBS Program on its own. The number of trainees large companies propose to hire in a consortium should be fairly limited, except for such circumstances as when several large banking firms may join together in a consortium to provide instruction to enable JOBS trainees to meet the high academic requirements of bank employment. Typically, large companies should not need to depend upon a consortium for administrative assistance in a JOBS Program.

Many companies not only participate in a consortium but also conduct their own JOBS Programs. These companies use the consortium as a source of one kind of labor, and provide their own skills training in other job categories.

A West Coast electronics firm wanted to hire 150 disadvantaged people through the JOBS Program. The company has a strong commitment to the program, but believed it was not equipped to provide the needed break-in period to prepare recruits for actual work. For this reason they joined a consortium to recruit, screen, provide orientation, counseling and other support services to trainees.

THE LEGAL NATURE OF A CONSORTIUM

The consortium proposal consists of a proposal format, including an individual Training Plan Synopsis sheet, and a suggested Consortium Agreement form, for completion by each participating company. All of the participating companies, as part of the Consortium Agreement, must legally authorize the consortium to act for them on matters concerning the JOBS contract. The proposal is submitted under the name of the consortium; however, responsibility for fulfilling contractual stipulations rests with the companies.

The consortium can take on any form capable of conducting a contract of this nature. Some of the ways are:

- A specially formed corporation: composed of participating companies that have been incorporated under the laws of a state, specifically designed to carry out the operation of a JOBS contract
- A joint venture: an association (such as partnership or cooperative) of participating companies joined together to administer and operate a JOBS contract

All participating companies involved in a consortium are part of a legal agreement with the Department of Labor. As companies are added or leave the consortium, the basic document must be modified to reflect this change. Underlying contracts with the other members of the group or with third parties are not affected, unless the proposed modification changes the overall services to be performed by the consortium for the participating companies. The Consortium Agreement should spell out the exact services to be provided by the consortium, and how employers are to use these services.

TYPES OF CONSORTIA

There are several varieties of consortia. The vertical consortium is a consortium of companies in the same industry; for example, insurance or banking. The area or horizontal consortium is a consortium of companies in the same locale, frequently brought together by a chamber of commerce, and may include several kinds of businesses. These consortia tend to work best when one or two basic kinds of skills training (pre-OJT) fit the needs of all participating companies.

Area consortia are, of course, more deeply rooted in community problems and commitments than some vertical consortia. Some people feel, therefore, that they offer more possibility of program continuity. Because of the diversity of training needs when different kinds of businesses participate, they can be more difficult to manage than vertical consortia. However, since vertical consortia are limited to one industry, they may be more affected by economic conditions and labor needs, and therefore be more vulnerable to changing circumstances.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE CONSORTIUM

Among the responsibilities of the consortium administration are the need to administer the funds covering the following costs:

- Costs of providing instruction for pre-on-the-job training and required job-related education
- Costs of providing human relations training for supervisors
- Costs of counselors
- (Limited) costs of transportation, child care and medical assistance programs (it should be noted that employers can opt to be responsible for these costs)
- Costs of administering, directing and coordinating the program, including maintaining of records for each employee and submission of monthly reports of progress to the Department of Labor, and payments on a monthly basis to participating companies

A sponsoring organization such as a chamber of commerce, with help from NAB, will also prepare the JOBS contract proposal and will act as the agent to negotiate a viable training program.

The management of a consortium requires alert involvement in each member company's JOBS Program if it is to provide effective leadership. This includes:

- A coordinated flow of paperwork to keep proper records and billings
- Proper supervision of subcontractors involved in each company's program
- Awareness of progress (or lack of it) of the program, to enable corrective measures to be taken, including helping companies fill their job pledges on

time, helping companies with internal organizational problems that arise from the program, etc.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF PARTICIPATING COMPANIES

On-the-job training is the sole responsibility of the employer. This portion of the training program cannot be subcontracted. The employer is also responsible for assuring that each trainee is given all the consortium support services that will aid him in making a successful transition into a productive and permanent full-time employee.

THE CONSORTIUM PLANT

Some of the activities, such as supervisor and new hire orientation, and formal classroom work, can be centralized and in many cases should be. The central training facility should be located in a reasonably accessible area. Activities should be scheduled to minimize the number of trips between the facility and the job.

CHECK-LIST SUMMARY

1. A consortium enables smaller companies to take part in JOBS Programs without assuming the full burden of such program components as: proposal preparation, administrative and reporting procedures, negotiation with DOL, outreach and recruitment, publicity and promotion, skills training, supervisory training, orientation, counseling and other support services.

2. A consortium can provide a useful link between local business, the minority members of the work force and the total community.

3. All participants in the consortium must accept responsibility for the consortium as their program, albeit a joint program.

4. The consortium activities should be conducted in a manner that facilitates trainees' identifying with their employers rather than with the consortium.

5. Responsibility for OJT rests with the individual companies participating in the consortium.

6. Although a consortium is a legal entity, responsibility for fulfilling contractual stipulations rests with the participating companies.

APPENDIX D
TORRANCE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE CONSORTIUM

The development and implementation of a consortium requires good planning, extensive preparation and appropriate resources. The number of people, companies and organizations involved requires experienced leadership, to enable all the important parts to work together in harmony.

The process of developing the Torrance Chamber of Commerce Consortium (Torrance, California, 1972) illustrates the planning preparation, and resources needed to implement a consortium that can achieve its objectives. The following outline lists the series of steps taken in the course of making this consortium operational, which may also serve as a guide to others.

A. Preliminary Steps

1. The Long Beach NAB office held a discussion with the manager of the Chamber of Commerce and some members of the Torrance Chamber Board of Directors to explain the nature of a consortium and to see if there was interest in the possibility of forming one.

2. Sufficient interest was displayed to suggest that the full Board of the Chamber hear a marketing presentation given by the NAB office.

3. The Board gave approval for the manager to further explore the feasibility of the Chamber's being involved. The president named a task force of three members to gather information for the consideration of the Board.

4. The task force met with NAB personnel, reviewed other consortium programs, conferred with technical assistance personnel, and recommended that the Chamber of Commerce undertake the project.

5. The Board gave approval to develop a consortium, and gave the task force power of attorney to act in its behalf. Throughout the development and implementation of the consortium, the Chamber of Commerce played an important, encouraging and supportive role.

B. Development Steps

1. The task force (acting for the Chamber) received a number of technical briefings from NAB personnel and from technical assistance personnel.

2. Interviews were held with support service companies interested in a subcontract, and a company was selected. By this time, the task force had developed a concept of how they wished their program to operate. Their selection of a subcontractor to perform orientation, counseling and supervisory training reflected that concept.

3. NAB, the Chamber task force, and the support service company met to organize a marketing strategy. They agreed to engage in an organized effort to market the program to a select group of business organizations in the Torrance community. A Chamber of Commerce newsletter and a description of how the consortium would function was handed to each company contacted. Candidate companies were chosen because they offered good jobs with reasonable pay. Members of the Board of Directors were often asked to discuss the consortium with those companies needing an additional marketing effort.

4. A meeting of all who would be involved in the consortium was held to plan the proposal for a funded contract. This time a key figure from the DOL contracting office was present to give his guidance and counsel to the preparation of the program description. The manager of the Torrance HRD center was included in the orientation.

5. A consortium manager was carefully recruited and hired. A local businessman with sound management skills was selected. Fortunately, this manager was an ex-president of the Chamber of Commerce and a respected leader. He had proven management skills, as well as broad familiarity with the local business community.

6. A joint effort produced a good program description with the development guidance from DOL. Many problems were faced in the preparation and submission of the proposal. NAB staff, DOL staff and other resources were helpful in providing assistance to the consortium manager, who coordinated the effort.

C. Submission of the Proposal

1. When the proposal was submitted for funding, work began in earnest with the managers of the participating companies. Meetings were scheduled with all employers. NAB, the support service company and HRD job placement personnel each explained their role.

2. The manager of the consortium continued to meet with individual employers to keep up their interest and to further prepare for the hiring schedule of trainees.

3. Additional participating companies were contacted, and modifications of the contract were being prepared even before the proposal was funded.

D. Implementation of the Program

The series of meetings and other efforts to maintain informed, active and cooperative involvement of all participants led to an efficient and reasonably problem-free implementation of the program. A sound marketing strategy enabled the marketing team to achieve the goal of 200 jobs in the allotted time.

APPENDIX E
LOCKHEED CONSORTIUM

The following description of the Lockheed consortium is excerpted from a statement made in 1970 by the Management Council for Bay Area Employment Opportunities, to the Senate Subcommittee on Employment, Manpower and Poverty. A Lockheed spokesman, in an August 1972 letter to HIRI, states that in the two years since the statement below was made ". . . we have continued the operation . . . and our success ratio has improved at least 5 to 10 percentage points. For the past two years, the program has differed only in that there have been somewhat fewer companies participating because of the economic impact of the reduced electronics and aerospace business in our area . . . ."

*

"In early 1968, with the initiation of the National Alliance of Businessmen, the Management Council for Bay Area Employment Opportunities, working with the Lockheed Missiles & Space Company, collected a group of large and small Bay Area companies into an operating consortium and in July 1968 started the program . . . .

How the Consortium Works

"The program is operated in two basic sections, a pre-OJT period of four weeks and an on-the-job training period of eight-to-sixteen weeks. During the pre-OJT period, the trainee reports to one of the two Lockheed Missiles & Space Company training facilities; during the OJT period, training is at the trainee's regular work position at the member company plant.

"During the pre-OJT period, trainees are collected into classes of four to eight people, all being trained in a single work category. Each trainee is on the payroll of a particular member company, and receives his pay check from the company. All trainees receive the same wage during the pre-OJT period- $1.75/hour. This period is used for medical and dental examinations, remedial education where required, preliminary vocational training, legal and financial counseling, and generally addresses the basic problem of preparing the trainee so that he can perform in an acceptable manner when he appears on the company floor . . . .

"During the OJT period, each trainee reports to his parent company and enters the OJT portion under the immediate supervisor involved. His counselor at the consortium is in contact with the trainee and his supervisor during the initial adjustment period to assist in any problems which may develop.

"Because the groups are small, each class is tailored to the particular needs of the jobs involved. The four-week program is set up after discussions with each company involved and examination of the actual work area and job operation. Each trainee's instruction is supplemented as much as possible with basic work materials used within the employing company . . . .

"Skills training is started within the first days of the pre-OJT period, so that the trainee knows the job is 'for real'. Each job-related skill preparation program is established in small but definite increments of learning, so that the confidence of the trainee can be built up with successful accomplishment before proceeding to the next difficulty level of operation . . . .

"One key counselor is the instructor, but another field counselor works with the trainee (and the instructor) during his first few weeks to try to resolve any potential limitations to full-time employment . . . . The field counselor continues working with the trainee after he starts his OJT period. The counselor contacts both trainee and his supervisor at least twice a week for the first few weeks of the OJT, and reduces his contacts only if the

trainee is encountering no difficulty in his program. If the trainee is experiencing difficulty in some area which can be improved at the center, he can (at the suggestion of his supervisor) come to the center for some special tutoring in the problem area, and then return to the OJT program. If a trainee is just not working out at the company, he can be returned to the training center and removed from the company's employment. At the center, he can be placed with another member company, retrained in another skill in a 'second chance' operation, or dropped from the program depending on his attitude, the problems he has encountered, etc . . . .

"The immediate supervisor of each trainee is given a special sensitivity training program, generally about four hours during the pre-OJT period. This includes a discussion of the general problems of the employment of minority and hard core disadvantaged persons and covers details of the performance to be expected of the particular trainee, information on problems he may encounter, information on his home environment, etc. During the last week of pre-OJT, there is a discussion between the trainee and his supervisor, with the instructor acting as a coordinator for the initial portion of that discussion, and later supplying information on the trainee's strong and weak points . . . .

"By minimizing the paperwork required of the member companies, by consolidating the initial training and support services, and by removing the financial risk from the individual companies, the program encourages a wider participation by business and industry. Lockheed, operating under subcontract to the Management Council, provides the administrative operations, is the single source for all required records, provides the capital required in the performance of the program and supplies all bills and reports to the Department of Labor. Member companies provide the jobs, and the on-the-job (OJT) training to the trainees. Lockheed operates two training centers, one in San Francisco and one in Sunnyvale . . . .

Success of the Operation

"By April 1, 1970, over 1000 trainees have entered the program. The successful retention through six months on the job is almost two out of every three trainees, and about 1/3 of those leaving during the six months period are for normal turnover reasons: pregnancy, sickness, returning to school, going into military service, moving out of the area, taking a better job at another company, etc. Thus the success ratio is actually almost three out of four, and this is with almost no requirements on the trainees coming into the program. About one of every six that have entered the OJT period have been upgraded or given merit increases in wages . . . .

What Has Been Learned

"There have been occasions when the trainees selected by CEP or CSES are badly matched to the job – trainees wanting outside work sent for office jobs, and vice versa. These generally become program failures . . . .

"By and large, however, the reason for failure has been poor attendance, and this generally is a symptom of poor motivation. The 4-weeks pre-training period is not a sufficient period to motivate those trainees who just aren't very interested in working, and once in the OJT period, additional motivation efforts have been very ineffective. In motivating the trainee who wants to work, but is insecure in his ability to hold a job, the consortium operation has been largely successful; but in motivating the trainee who appears interested in only a few days pay and is outwardly antagonistic toward employment in holding a full time 40-hour a week job, the consortium has had little real success.

"On the positive side, we have learned that relatively few trainees cannot be taught the technical skills of an entry-level job, even with almost no 'job-matching' in trainee selection. Young women have become adequate typists in a matter of weeks, even when

they have had no typing experience of any kind, and the same is true of keypunch operators, food clerks, telephone operators, electrical assemblers, etc. Without the pre-OJT period of skill training, however, many of these job categories would not be made available as 'entry-level' jobs.

Role of the Large/Small Companies

"The consortium contains large and small companies. The large companies provide the base jobs that lend stability to the operation and the fluctuations of the needs of the s all companies operate about this base. The large companies also act as 'buffers'; should a small company encounter a lay-off situation, the larger companies may be able to absorb a trainee caught in the layoff. And sometimes when a small company has a sudden need for a trainee, and cannot hold the position open for four weeks, a trainee can be switched from one of those in training for a larger company. The larger companies act as responsible reviewers of the success or weakness of the program, since they take on enough trainees to see the broad results.

"However, the large companies also gain in many ways. They can fill those jobs where they only have openings for one or two trainees and still get the pre-training done effectively. They gain the knowledge and experience of the efforts of the other companies and can benefit from any new approach which works with a member company . . . .

"The consortium makes it easy for the small company to participate in and stay in the program. They are given assistance in all parts of the program. They have no out-of-pocket costs to finance, since they are reimbursed monthly for their costs in the program. And should they have a run of one or two poor trainees (with no fault on their part), they do not suffer any financial loss which would turn them against continuing in the program and taking another trainee."

APPENDIX F

WATTS-WILLOWBROOK PLANT
LOCKHEED-CALIFORNIA COMPANY

THE FIRST YEAR OF OPERATION

FEBRUARY 1, 1970 TO JANUARY 31, 1971

WATTS-WILLOWBROOK PLANT • LOCKHEED-CALIFORNIA COMPANY

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I - MILESTONES

Every milestone outlined in the Lockheed Watts-Willowbrook Plant* Project Plan, dated 1 May 1969 was either met or beaten:

A. Initial staff at the plant - 19 January 1970

B. First group of 25 trainees hired - 2 February 1970

C. Start transfer of tools and equipment - 1 March 1970

D. First production effort - 30 March 1970

E. First assemblies shipped to Burbank - 27 April 1970

II - RECRUITING THE ECONOMICALLY DISADVANTAGED

Prior to the opening of Lockheed's Watts-Willowbrook Plant, we had been counseled by many recruiters from other companies who said they had experienced great difficulty in locating job-interested poor people. They told us that anyone who wanted to work was working and they gave us a dozen reasons why we would not be able to locate acceptable job applicants.

On January 12 and 13, in 1970, Al Lopez and John Mance interviewed more than forty (40) applicants at the Compton HRD office and the South Los Angeles Service Center. They could have selected the 24 men who were to begin training on February 2 before the week was over. However, we wanted an exceptional pilot group and so we made our selections slowly and carefully. It paid off as noted elsewhere in this document.

On the cold, foggy morning of January 19, 1970, John Mance arrived at the plant site to be greeted by Plant Manager, Bill Schwentner, and what appeared to be half of South Los Angeles. Between 8:30 a.m. and 2:15 p.m., John talked to 225 applicants, eight more than we would subsequently hire in the course of our entire first year of

*NOTE: Lockheed's Watts-Willowbrook Plant is physically located in the Watts Industrial Park, a community industrial park created under the auspices of a nonprofit group known as the Economic Resources Corporation. The ERC is an Economic Development Administration funded corporation headed by a board of Los Angeles area business leaders. They are engaged in a comprehensive program of economic redevelopment in the South Central Los Angeles community. Since this important urban project is worthy of independent study, no attempt has been made to treat their activities in this report.

II - RECRUITING THE ECONOMICALLY DISADVANTAGED (cont'd)

operation. Further, more than 6,000 persons applied at the Compton HRD office, the South Los Angeles Service Center, or at the Watts-Willowbrook Plant for work during our first year. The volume of our applicant traffic disproved the popular notion that welfare recipients enjoy their plight.

During our first three months of operation, we hired no women. Applicant traffic was averaging about 100 persons per week, 25 percent of them women. In our April, 1970 training class of 24 Job Skills Trainees we hired our first two women. The community grapevine then went into high gear and women applicants outnumbered men from May to August. At the same time, weekly traffic increased to approximately 125 persons.

In keeping with the community industrial park concept of the Watts Industrial Park, preconstruction policy decisions were made to recruit the Watts-Willowbrook Plant work force from the immediate community. By this method, the economic impact of the program could be multiplied as the Lockheed payroll dollars stimulated second and third generation economic benefits in the adjacent neighborhood. This added standard for plant operation presented no real problem. An actual advantage might be cited since we now find that the majority of our work force lives within convenient walking distance of the plant.

The one recruiting problem we had was locating interested Mexican-Americans. Several were interviewed prior to hiring trainees for the first class but most of them were under 18 years of age. Further, and we are certain of this, many Mexican-Americans thought that the plant was located at this site to accommodate Black people only. This thinking prevailed in spite of the fact that many Mexican-Americans live in Watts, Willowbrook, and Compton. The Mexican-American "problem" was solved by aggressively acknowledging our need for deserving people of <u>all</u> ethnic origins. We engaged the services of various community leaders and Mexican-American members of our staff at the plant. As a result, the percentage of Mexican-Americans hired rose from 0 in February to 12.4 within a few months.

III - SCREENING OF APPLICANTS

We arrived at several conclusions, in screening applicants, that may be of value to others. Job interviewers must not only know the science of interviewing, but must know how to relate to people whose lives have been more a pattern of failure than success.

In screening the economically disadvantaged, it is important to understand that a man is not without intelligence just because he is poor. A condescending or patronizing attitude exhibited by interviewers will kill a program before it starts.

III - SCREENING OF APPLICANTS (cont'd)

Testing should be held to an absolute minimum. Do not consider for hire only those persons whose test scores indicate promotability. As one HRD representative in East Los Angeles said: "When a Chicano gets a job in East Los Angeles, it is a promotion in itself."

Although certainly possessed with adequate intellectual capacity, hard-core employees do poorly in written tests because of certain economic disadvantages and a lack of formal education.

Do not require a man to read at the sixth grade level if the job for which he is to be trained requires fourth grade level reading. Make the training and the job reachable goals, but not a Sunday school picnic. You will be respected for this effort.

Finally, do not select and hire indiscriminately, as if the name of the game were to load your program with bodies as quickly as possible. As long as job resources are scarce, and as long as you are offering a hand up, not a handout, hire those persons who seem genuinely interested in working. They are many in number.

IV - TRAINING

It is important to note that this facility was designed to operate as a legitimate and integral part of the L-1011 manufacturing system. This is a production plant, not a training unit. Our graduated trainees remain with the plant to become the line workers and supervisors responsible for the manufacture of major structural components of the Lockheed TriStar.

Phase 1

We opened with twelve weeks of occupational preparation (vestibule) training. This was conducted in four spacious classrooms and in a 9,000 sq. ft. skills training shop area. The shop area was isolated from the manufacturing factory area and completely equipped with all the hand tools and floor mounted power tools necessary to build the fifteen progressively more difficult training projects required by the course.

We found it was important to isolate the trainees from the production area during this first training phase for the following reasons:

A. The trainees can learn without outside distractions.

B. They have a greater incentive to do well during training so they can graduate into the shops.

C. The tempo is much faster in production. Trainees are motivated to accelerate their activity from the more leisurely pace they were accustomed to in training as soon as they are upgraded into the production shops. In other words, except for on-the-job training, training and production activities should be kept separated.

IV - TRAINING

Phase 1 (cont'd)

Approximately 30% of the training time was devoted to classroom activities which included orientation into the work environment, basic, work-related education such as reading comprehension, shop mathematics and blueprint reading. The trainees were taken on tours of the final assembly lines at the parent plant so that they could see the function their assemblies would serve in the completed airplane. The balance of the time, the trainees were taught the use of tools and how to build sheet metal assembly projects approximating the actual aerospace work to which they would be assigned upon graduation.

Minor medical care was provided, ranging from emergency dental work to procurement of eyeglasses where needed.

The trainees were paid $2.18 per hour for the first four weeks, $2.38 per hour for the second four, $2.76 for the last four of the twelve week period.

Phase 2

The next twelve weeks were spend in on-the-job training in the shop as assembly helpers. During this period, trainees received further instruction from their instructor and through the use of what we call the "Buddy" system. (See Item XVII) Average pay rate was $3.34 per hour.

Phase 3

Upon successful completion of Phase 2, the trainees were again upgraded to a higher factory classification, still under the tutelage of their "buddies." Some who progressed faster than others were successfully upgraded to leadman. Average rate here was $3.75 per hour.

V - ETHNIC MIX

A. 83.5% Blacks; 12.4% Mexican-Americans; and 4.1% Puerto Ricans, South Americans, American Indians, Japanese-Americans, and Caucasians. (These figures approximate the racial mix of the community in which the plant is located.)

B. Staff

A well-meaning but uninformed visitor once asked the Caucasian plant manager if he had any minority people on his staff. The answer he received was, "Yes, four - two white supervisors, an engineer, and myself.

The actual statistics follow:

	Black	Mex.-Amer.	White
Counselor	1	0	0
Salaried Mfg. & Liaison Engrs.	1	1	1
Salaried Training Instructors	7	2	0
First Level Supervisors	6	1	3
Second Level Managers	5	1	0
Plant Manager	0	0	1
Total	20	5	4

VI - TRAINEE STATISTICS

A. Hired - 217
(184 male, 33 or 15% female)

B. Terminations - 39
(38 male, 1 female)

1. Reason for termination:

a. Company Initiated

Absenteeism	21	
Unsatisfactory Probation	3	
Violation of Company Rules	3	
Total		27

b. Voluntary Termination:

Military Induction	1	
Voluntary - Health	2	
Voluntary - Another Job	3	
Voluntary - Personal	6	
Total		12

Total Employee Turnover	17.9%
Total Employee Retention	82.1%*

2. When Terminated:

During first twelve weeks of training - 20

During on-the-job training in the shop - 19

C. Trainees with arrest and conviction records:

Proving a point that a great number of people with certain types of problems in their past can be more motivated to make good is the following statistic:

Hired with criminal records - 38.7**

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* This figure is exceptionally good when compared with nationwide norms for new plant operations of any description.

** Excluding traffic violations, but including narcotic possession, gambling, drunkenness and disturbing the peace. Two people had been involved in robbery, and one in cattle rustling.

VII - MANPOWER BUILDUP

Targeted production manpower buildup at the end of the first year was to be 100 trainees and 29 experienced workers (the latter transferred from Burbank). However, our experience with the first few groups of trainees was so encouraging that we accelerated the introduction of trainees into the 12 week job skills training phase, and subsequently into the shop, and reduced the number of experienced worker transfers. Thus, at the end of our first year, we had 150 trainees and had transferred only 19 experienced workers from Burbank. This action allowed us to increase our year-end trainee level by 50%.

VIII - PRODUCT LINE

During the initial planning phase for the plant, subassemblies containing high density work for the Model L-1011 were selected for transfer from Burbank. The transfer activity was scheduled so as to provide work for each class of trainees on the day they graduated to their on-the-job training phase in the shop.

These included Fuselage Bulkhead segments (470 per ship), Cargo, Galley, and Transverse Floor Beams (95 per ship), Honeycomb Floor Boards (approx. 3,000 sq. ft. per ship), and Insulation Batts (3,000 per ship).

Because trainee performance exceeded our original estimates, we were able to take on additional work, including many small periodic assemblies and primary structures as well as exterior skin panels for the Aft Fuselage. (See Item VII)

Exclusive of the Insulation Batts, these assemblies require the drilling of 150,000 close tolerance holes and the installation of 150,000 fasteners to assemble approximately 37,000 detail parts per ship. They are then cleaned and painted in our modern, semi-automatic processing and paint facility. During our first year of operation, over 5,000 assemblies were produced and shipped to the Burbank and Palmdale assembly lines.

IX - SUPERVISORY RATIO

Our average number of employees per first line supervisor was 21 as compared to ratios ranging as low as 5 to 1 in some hard-core plants.

We were able to successfully operate at this higher number due to: (1) the high caliber of supervisors we selected, (2) the excellent training the employees received, and (3) the outstanding spirit and motivation displayed by the trainees.

X - PRODUCTION EFFICIENCY

Once trained, our people took to production like ducks to water. Their native mechanical skills, tempered and upgraded by their initial 12 weeks of vestibule training improved with each day of on-the-job training in production.

X - PRODUCTION EFFICIENCY (cont'd)

Also, as they became accustomed to their new assignments, a natural competitive team spirit developed among the different groups. This was stimulated through the posting of production records, rewarding the best performers with Awards of Achievement, Man of the Month Awards, and by promotions to higher classifications. Personal appreciation, extended by higher plant management, to outstanding achievers seemed to stimulate better performance. Slow learners were tutored, and the very few who simply "played games" were either "motivated" or terminated.

Plant efficiency is best demonstrated by the fact that production performance of the plant, as measured by standard hours produced "per 40 hr. man," led all other plants engaged in Model L-1011 activities, and by the end of the first year, the Watts-Willowbrook Plant gave back over 10,000/man hours of its direct labor budgets to the Burbank Plant. The dramatic savings produced at this plant is in direct conflict with reports from other "hard-core" plants where they have suggested that a break-even point cannot be reached until three years after start up.

XI - COST REDUCTION

Improved operating methods totaling cost savings of $223,000 were approved and implemented at the Watts-Willowbrook Plant during this period. Additional cost savings are in process.

XII - QUALITY

Exacting quality is a must due to the critical structural requirements of the airplane assemblies produced in this plant. The work force has received a number of commendations for the consistently high quality of its product.

The first group of employees to qualify for Zero Defect Awards was the Dept. 23-32 processing and paint group which processed over 3,000 assemblies with no errors. Several other employees received individual awards.

XIII - ANNUAL PAYROLL

By the end of our first year of operation, we had an annual payroll of $2,087,852 which consisted of $1,750,860 for hourly workers, and $336,992 for salaried personnel. Because of our employment practices, the bulk of this money flowed directly into the Watts-Willowbrook communities. As a basic industrial plant with no need to market a product in the economically depressed community, the cash flow is entirely positive - requiring no offset or drain of community resources.

XIV - SAFETY

In line with the company policy to provide safe working conditions for its employees, a Workman's Safety Committee was formed of the trainees. This group meets on a monthly basis and is charged with responsibility for uncovering and reporting potential safety hazards. The findings are discussed in detail by the plant General Safety Committee. Corrective action is taken where necessary and documented. Each member of this 5-man team is provided with a distinctive Lockheed Safety Badge. Members receive regular safety bulletins and safety instructions.

XV - CREDIT UNION PARTICIPATION

We have encouraged thrift among our employees and have helped them consolidate outside debts into a lower interest rate credit union loan to ease their prior financial burdens.

Of the 243 hourly employees in the plant as of year end, 194 (80.9%) were saving with the credit union. At the same time, credit union loans totaling $34,242 were made to the trainees.

XVI - ATTENDANCE

We understand that attendance has been a major problem in other "disadvantaged employee" plants, and the Watts-Willowbrook Plant was no exception. We found there were generally two critical periods in an employee's tenure when he was vulnerable. The first one was during the initial training period when the first blush of excitement were off. The second time was after the employee had gone through a succession of promotions and was receiving more money than he was accustomed to receiving. At this point he might reason, "Why work five days a week when four days pay will take care of my current requirements."

We had been forewarned of this problem and, consequently, administered a hard-hitting program of motivation by individual and group counseling, verbal and written reprimands, suspensions, and in the few cases where we could not reach the employee (approx. 10%), terminations were executed.

Awards of Achievement were given to all those whose attendance was exemplary and competition between groups was stimulated by the posting of attendance records in the shop each week. As a result, absences were held to approximately 6%, which compares very favorably with the industry average for small plants of all types.

XVII - "BUDDY" SYSTEM

One of the prime ingredients for successful operation of this manufacturing plant is on-the-job training by qualified, experienced hourly employees. A special job classification (Assembler-Instructor) was negotiated with the Union which enabled us to select 19 workers from Burbank who were first assigned to work on the product at Burbank prior to its transfer to Watts. We selected people with proven skills and for their interest, ability, and willingness to help others.

When each class of trainees moved into production after graduating from the vestibule training phase, members were assigned to groups averaging 9 trainees to each experienced worker.

The result was twofold: (1) The trainees learned their production assignments from experienced production hands, and (2) Because they related much better to their peers than to their superiors, many small problems and grievances were discovered and solved before they could become real problems.

XVIII - RAP SESSIONS

Once a month each supervisor took his crew away from their work stations to one of our classrooms and informally "rapped" with them in an hour-long relaxed meeting. In this way, the supervisor was able to keep his people abreast of developments within the plant and the company. Of equal importance, each trainee was encouraged to "speak up" on any work-related subject.

This resulted in good lines of communication and helped to weld the individual teams together. It also improved trainee morale when they learned that their opinions were important to us.

XVIV - COMMUNITY SERVICE

Many of our young trainees had outstanding warrants for arrest on traffic violations when hired. Through the efforts of our conselor, we were able to get 59 of 60 withdrawn by the court in return for arrangements for the fines to be paid in weekly increments. Aside from the personal benefits to these employees, the court received $1,800 in fines that it probably would not have received, and the taxpayers were saved the custodial costs that result from nonpayment.

Before Christmas the plant distributed 28 Lockheed Employee Recreation Club furnished Christmas baskets to families of needy employees. We also had an LERC sponsored Christmas party at the plant for over 200 children of the employees. This was a festive occasion with treats, presents and a magnificant Black Santa Claus.

XVIV - COMMUNITY SERVICE (cont'd)

Other examples of community service include:

1. Angel Morales, production department manager, is president of the Rancho School District in East Los Angeles.

2. John Mance, industrial relations manager, is a member of the Compton Kiwanis Club, member of the Advisory Council of the Community Skill Center (Gardena), and chairman of the Labor and Industry Committee of the San Fernando Valley NAACP.

3. J. Pate, assembler-instructor, is involved in recruiting and coaching young minority people from Compton in the Connie Mack Baseball Association.

4. C. Johnson, trainee, is president of the Los Angeles Chapter of the American Indian Athletic Association, which he helped found in 1964. This group has over 1,300 members, and is engaged in developing American Indian youth through sports.

5. H. Wilson, counselor, is coach of a group of young people in a basketball league from the Watts-Willowbrook area and another group from the Southwest Los Angeles area.

6. A Grandy, training instructor, is a Little League baseball coach.

The plant had a heavy tour load of people from the community, interested representatives from industry and numerous governmental visitors. All tours were hosted by plant representatives. When appropriate, chart presentations were made, and a 15-minute documentary film was shown. The visitor's response was entirely positive. Even those who may have come predispositioned to be critical went away with a full appreciation for the merits of this program.

XX - SPORTS ACTIVITIES

An 8-team bowling league was organized under LERC sponsorship. Our teams had a healthy mix of management as well as trainee personnel.

The plant had a basketball team in the LERC Burbank League, and they gave an outstanding account of themselves, winning their division championship against more experienced teams.

Plans are laid for a softball league for workers and management.

These activities have done much to establish rapport among all levels in the plant.

XXI - SUMMARY

We have often been asked for the vital ingredients necessary to the success of a "hard-core" feeder plant such as ours. We will attempt to list the major ones below, and spell out some of the lessons we learned.

A. Problem of Understanding

A major obstacle of implementation and success of hard-core employment is a lack of understanding of the differences that exist between the white, middle-class society and the culture of the deprived minorities. Further, even sympathetic and committed people can have some pretty weird ideas and attitudes about the "disadvantaged." Some people expect the hard-core to be stupid and lazy, if not immoral. How else can we explain the exclamations of surprise when, with little attention to their needs, such trainees turn out to be hard-working, possessed of native intelligence, and with a full ration of honesty?

We soon realized that we were dealing substantially with cross-cultural problems and racial discrimination, and their combined effects on motivation. The answers are not obvious and we found that we could alienate and lose trainees without knowing why.

Without being condescending, we recognized that many new workers, regardless of color or background, were under tremendous pressures, real and imagined, in the new work situation. Often they were strangers in a strange environment, unaware of the significance of the spoken and unspoken expectations of their supervisors, their co-workers, and the company itself regarding work behavior, promptness in starting time, absenteeism, etc.

From the traditional supervisor's viewpoint, some of the hard-core seem to be overly sensitive to supervision and prone to distort helpful criticism into hostile attitudes. Experience and special supervisor training solved this problem.

B. Top Management Support

Support must be whole-hearted, as in the case of Lockheed. Without this, failure, or at best mediocre performance, is assured. The only thing worse than an apathetic management group is the tendency of some to meddle - to pull the flowers up every day to see how the roots are growing. Fortunately, we received only positive support from the parent plant. Our administrative policies and innovative operating techniques were encouraged rather than questioned.

IIX - SUMMARY (cont'd)

C. Project Plan

In-depth studies must be undertaken prior to implementation. In the case of Lockheed, it was recognized that one man with extensive operations management background should be appointed project manager to coordinate inputs from all branches of the parent company into a Project Plan. Once approved by all branch heads, this plan formed the basis for subsequent plans and action.

D. Facility

Our experience suggests that the physical aspects of a ghetto plant and the total working environment are factors that deserve special attention. A marginal or substandard plant in the ghetto is as much of a problem as it would be in any other section of the community. The tone of this project was set with a brand new facility built to Lockheed's specifications according to first class industrial park standards. The aesthetics of building design and landscaping were carefully considered.

With area parameters and product lines already established, the 104,000 sq.ft. plant was designed to provide the most economical division and flow of planned activities, and yet be flexible for adaptation to other manufacturing work in future years.

E. Government Participation

It is difficult for any private industrial concern to completely fund the cost of extensive and in-depth training required to produce highly skilled aerospace mechanics. Although the product line (Model L-1011) was a commerical enterprise, funded by Lockheed, as was the facility, it was possible to secure an MA-4 Training Contract with the Labor Department to help offset excess training costs. This was an important asset.

F. Plant Staff

The plant staff was selected to complement the expected ethnic mix of the employees that would come to us from the community we planned to serve. (See Item V)

Our very thorough search for candidates from among Black and Mexican-American personnel in our Burbank plant revealed a great number of people with a high degree of potential for management positions. From these groups we selected the most qualified in the following areas:

1. Experience in the areas to be supervised.
2. Supervisory or management potential.
3. Enthusiasm and dedication to the success of the program.

F. Plant Staff (cont'd)

We selected those we felt would relate best to our future employees and who were genuinely interested in them. We shied away from selecting anyone who would be autocratic in their new position and tend to "talk down" to the employees. We knew our first job in the new plant would be to establish credibility in the community.

The staff personnel were selected many months before the plant was activated. They were placed in training assignments within their respective branches at the parent plant to round out their experience in the functions they were to be responsible for.

Once a week for approximately six months, the project manager (who ultimately became the plant manager) conducted "brainstorming" sessions with the future staff. All phases of future plant operations were discussed in depth.

Each member of the future Watts-Willowbrook management team benefited from these sessions by learning in advance how he would interphase with other members. Each man's personality also became known to all members of the team, and all members participated in knocking off each other's "rough" edges.

By the end of these sessions, what had started out to be a group of individuals, had become a knowledgeable, purposeful team.

G. Establishing the Work Environment

We cannot overstress the importance of accepting nothing less than top performance and adherence to posted rules of conduct by the trainees. It is most important to have primary rules and regulations in writing and posted. In addition, they must be thoroughly explained to the trainees in advance. Our work force was comparatively young (average age - 26 years), and for most of them this was their first introduction to an industrial plant environment.

Although we treated each trainee as an individual, with understanding and a reasonable attitude towards any problems he may have brought with him, we did not relax any standards which were applied equally to all employees. As a result, the great majority responded exceptionally well. As in all groups, however, there seems to be a small percentage who cannot be reached. After much extra counseling, followed by light disciplinary measures, we found that termination of employment was the only way out for approximately 12.3% of the people hired. (See Item VI)

XXI - SUMMARY

G. Establishing the Work Environment (cont'd)

Although we felt we had failed each time this was necessary, the plant benefited by getting rid of the "deadwood" and by gaining the respect of the people retained. We lived by the principle that we would give the trainees a "hand up," not a "handout."

H. Work Schedules

It is exceedingly important to have work available at the proper time and in the proper amounts for each class of trainees when they graduate into the production shops. Too little work will either result in inefficiency, laziness, and loss of profit, or a layoff of employees, which would cause alarm and frustration in the community and destroy the credibility of the company. On the other hand, too much work will cause initial schedule slippage which is also very costly.

Work transfer plans and schedules for the first year were worked out far in advance of need, and in every case, the tools, equipment and material were made available in time to permit the most efficient operation. (See Item X) Every trainee graduate had a production job waiting for him upon graduation.

I. The Counselor's Role

As stated before, we expected our future work force to be comparatively young and with personality and behavior patterns established For most of them, employment with Lockheed was to be their first experience in an industrial environment and at a regular job.

Our task, therefore, was to encourage good work habits and to develop individual confidence and self-sufficiency in each employee.

Although all of the staff would be called on to provide supportive counseling from time to time, we realized that we also would need the services of a full-time counselor. We felt that the counselor should be relatively young (to preclude a generation gap) and work well with ghetto-oriented people. We felt that professional, clinically-oriented industrial psychologists might do more harm than good.

We were exceedingly fortunate to hire a well qualified Black, originally from the ghetto, who had worked several years for another aircraft company, the last year of which he spent in a similar, but smaller hard-core plant.

I. The Counselor's Role (cont'd)

This background gave him understanding and the ability to point the trainee in the right direction. In the beginning, many trainees were inclined to "play games" with him, but as his ability to see through game-playing dialogue and actions became established, only the foolhardily again attempted it.

On the other hand, he performed many services such as recall of bench warrants (See Item XVIV), getting repossessed autos back, home counseling on domestic problems, adjudicating wage attachments with creditors. Weekly group counseling during the training phase covered such subjects as adjustment to the industrial environment, rules, regulations and how to communicate. Individual counseling on specific problems was provided when the need arose.

The counselor was vital to the success of our plant. Note must be made here, however, that he was careful not to usurp the authority of the trainee's supervisor and indeed interphased with the supervisor in all areas except where specific information had been offered in confidence.

J. The Instructor's Role

In addition to having technical competency in the courses to be taught, the instructor must be able to relate to and cope with people with all sorts of hangups and differences in comprehension, communication, and personality.

Although most of our trainees were serious and eager to learn, there were always one or two in each class who, to establish themselves as "leaders" in the eyes of the others, were always in the forefront with trick questions and other ploys to keep them on "center stage." The instructor had to be sharp enough to counteract this without alienating the offender.

At the other end of the spectrum, there are those who do not completely understand but are too shy to ask questions. These people must be reinforced and given confidence. Therefore, the instructor must be able to adjust and see that each trainee needs an approach fitted to his personality.

The instructor, as were most of ours, should be comparatively young and exceptionally dedicated. He must be able to relate, and must never try to bluff. The trainee can recognize a phony. They have great sophistication in certain aspects of human relations.

XXI - SUMMARY

J. The Instructor's Role (cont'd)

That our instructors were outstandingly successful in self-evident. The esteem in which they were held by the trainees was borne out by a gift of appreciation to them by each class upon graduation.

K. The Supervisor's Role

The most important key to success lies in the skill of the first-line supervisor. He must now - more than ever before - possess the ability to lead, guide, counsel, and discipline. A new job is a traumatic experience. Some trainees have failed so many times before that they are afraid to fail again. A negative attitude is the biggest factor to overcome. We tried to teach our trainees to play the winning game.

Effective communication is a key element. The supervisor must be a good listener. He must be honest and let them know "how it is." Insincerity or broken promises or a patronizing attitude will alienate hard-core trainees faster than any other act.

The supervisor must learn the "dialogue;" how to counsel. On the other hand, counseling must be firm; they may at first test the supervisor and try to "con" or "put him on." Laxness or indifference on the supervisor's part only prolongs rehabilitation and inhibits motivation.

Until an employee can relate to his supervisor, he sees him as a policeman - someone who will punish him. The supervisor must take whatever time is necessary to make him understand why he is being rewarded or reprimanded.

It is very important to repeat instructions. The supervisor must have patience. Rules of conduct must be in writing. Let the employee know what is expected and then follow up.

Motivation factors - show sincere appreciation for a job well done. Each little success gives greater confidence and motivates greater achievement. Don't have a double standard. If they know they are accepted, they will respond.

New trainees need to identify with positive things; each small success with a job, in their relations with their co-workers and supervision, will help.

XXI - SUMMARY

K. The Supervisor's Role (cont'd)

A good supervisor must believe that trainees have tremendous potential. Properly trained, disciplined and motivated, they will out-produce the average worker and will demonstrate great pride in their work, their group and the company.

The task is not easy, but the rewards are great in the satisfaction and pride of having assisted a fellow human being, and in having developed a productive employee who, by his performance, reflects credit on his supervisor, the company, and the community.

L. Trainee Involvement

Applying the standard that all people do their best when they feel they are important and they are needed, we used every opportunity to get the trainees involved in plant activities and programs.

1. We solicited suggestions for improvement of plant activities. A wealth of ideas were received, many of which were implemented, and the originators were promptly recognized.

2. We selected our plant slogan from trainee's suggestions.

3. We established a formal Workman's Safety Committee made up of trainees.

4. We allowed trainees to stand on their own feet and to be responsible for their own actions.

5. Slow learners received special tutoring, but no one was "crutched."

6. At the request of the employees, we approved their bringing food into the plant for pre-Christmas parties. During the lunch period, which for that day we extended, each of the ten groups brought in hams, turkeys, sweet potato pies, etc., and exchanged presents. This brought everyone in the plant closer together. Not one instance of alcohol or other intoxicant was noted.

M. Promoting from the Ranks

A great inhibiting factor to morale, motivation, and performance of employees is in providing only dead-end jobs. In every instance except for the initial staff and the few experienced workers who

M. Promoting from the Ranks (cont'd)

were transferred from Burbank, all promotions were made from employees in the plant. This provided an incentive and once again demonstrated that the company was sincere in its efforts to provide opportunities for the community it was serving.

N. Group Motivation

Correction of behavior or performance deviations is sometimes best handled by the informal leadership within the trainee's group. This cannot or should not be planned by management. Group discipline should not supplant management's responsibility and, further, any collaboration between formal and informal leadership would render both ineffective.

The point is: Allow each group of employees to operate within acceptable constraints. There is, of course, nothing innovative about these concepts. Most employees understand that a company cannot operate without order and discipline, and our people at the Watts-Willowbrook plant are no exception. Moreover, the extent to which a work force is self-motivating is the extent to which plant morale is sustained.

In order to curb a problem of absenteeism, one training class developed a paper clock with the working day sector clearly defined. Inscribed were the words, "These eight hours belong to Lockheed." Whenever a trainee arrived at his work station late, or when one returned to the job after a day of absence he would find one of these clocks at his workbench. This kind of "counseling" generally led to the desired result.

We were fortunate that the vast majority of employees demonstrated a high degree of motivation and morale.

O. Militant Employees

This problem has never come up in the Lockheed plant. Our good fortune in this area may be due to the fact there was nothing in our plant policies and actions to encourage or stimulate anti-establishment actions.

P. Thefts of Company Property

Although other hard-core plants have had bad experiences among their employees, theft was non-existent at the Watts-Willowbrook plant. We were prepared to cope with this by instituting various controls, but there are no recorded instances of anything of value missing. We attribute this to the pride the employees had in "their" plant and their jobs.

XXI - SUMMARY

Q. Morale

All of the positive ingredients noted elsewhere in this report have resulted in our best commodity, a plant-wide spirit and enthusiasm that is rarely seen in an industrial atmosphere. This was demonstrated by an exceptionally high degree of activity during working hours, by gestures of appreciation and friendship, and by such minor yet significant evidence as the absence of marks on the walls of our restrooms.

In the beginning, attractive badge tabs were made for all personnel with the plant identification and a slogan which was selected from the best submitted by the trainees themselves, "Making Community Progress." (See Item I) These are proudly worn in the community as well as in the plant. Everyone is also proud of the sign over the employee's entrance, "Thru this door pass the best aircraft mechanics in the world."

Our plant motto is:

"Black is Beautiful,
so is Brown
Yellow
Red
White

We're just people here."

W. F. Schwentner
Plant Manager
Watts-Willowbrook Plant

GLOSSARY

ABE	Adult Basic Education
ABLE	Adult Basic Learning Examination
AEC	Atomic Energy Commission
AFL-CIO	American Federation of Labor-Congress of Industrial Organizations
AFSCME	American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees
BIB	Biographical Information Blank
CAMPS	Cooperative Area Manpower Systems
CEP	Concentrated Employment Program
CORE	Congress of Racial Equality
CSR	Contract Service Representative
DOL	(United States) Department of Labor
DOT	Dictionary of Occupational Titles
DVR	Department of Vocational Rehabilitation
EEA	Emergency Employment Act of 1971
EEO	Equal Employment Opportunity
EEOC	Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
EIN	Employers Insurance Number
ES	(State) Employment Service
ESL	English as a Second Language
ETS	Educational Testing Service
FEPC	Fair Employment Practice Commission
FHA	Federal Housing Administration
GAO	General Accounting Office
GATB	General Aptitude Test Battery
GED	General Education Diploma
HIRI	Human Interaction Research Institute
HIT	High Intensity Training
H-O-T	Hands-On Training center
HRD	(California Department of) Human Resources Development
HRDI	Human Resources Development Institute of the AFL-CIO
IRS	Internal Revenue Service
JOBS	Job Opportunities in the Business Sector
JRE	Job-related education
MA	Manpower Administration
MDTA	Manpower Development Training Act
NAACP	National Association for the Advancement of Colored People
NAB	National Alliance of Businessmen
NASA	National Aeronautics & Space Administration
NET	National Educational Television
NYC	Neighborhood Youth Corps
OEO	Office of Economic Opportunity
OFCC	Office of Federal Contract Compliance
OIC	Opportunities Industrialization Center
OJT	On-the-job training

RMA	Regional Manpower Administrator
SER	Service-Employment-Redevelopment
SES	State Employment Service
SR	Social reinforcement
SUIC	Skills Upgrading in Cleveland
TAT	Training and Technology,
TESL	Teaching English as a Second Language
T-Group	A training group in which the group itself determines what shall be discussed, where frank feedback of each person's perceptions of the impact of other group members is encouraged, and where the leader serves mainly as process observer and facilitator
UAW	United Auto Workers
VA	Veterans Administration
WIN	Work Incentive Program
YTEP	Youth Training Employment Project

SUGGESTED READINGS IN MANPOWER TRAINING FOR THE DISADVANTAGED

Arkin, R., Smith, R. L., & Uslan, S. S. *How to train supervisors in behavior modification.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-05-70-05. Los Angeles: Mentec Corporation, April 1972a.

One of four manuals designed to aid supervisors in training employees, particularly the hard-core disadvantaged, and to enable management to strengthen, broaden and maintain an established, operational social reinforcement system. Provides guidelines and procedures for training supervisors in theory and practical application of behavior modification. To be used by the relatively experienced teacher or trainer. (See Arkin, et al, below; Mentec Corporation; and Smith, et al for companion manuals.)

Arkin, R., Smith, R. L., & Uslan, S. S. *Supervisory workbook on behavior modification.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-05-70-05. Los Angeles: Mentec Corporation, April 1972b.

One of four manuals designed to aid supervisors in training employees, particularly hard-core disadvantaged, and to enable management to strengthen, broaden and maintain an established, operational social reinforcement system. Designed for supervisors to use while attending a training program on behavior modification. Meant to be used with *How to Train Supervisors in Behavior Modification.* (See Arkin, et al, above; Mentec Corporation; and Smith, et al, for companion manuals.)

Backer, T. E. *Assessment of the disadvantaged in manpower programs: A review and analysis.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 92-06-72-07. Los Angeles: Human Interaction Research Institute, 1971.

Summarizes available information about assessment of the disadvantaged in manpower programs by (1) comparing traditional techniques with new ones, (2) pulling together new knowledge that has emerged from these research efforts, and (3) analyzing the special potential of newly developed assessment devices for counseling the disadvantaged. Includes some further steps that might be taken to improve assessment in manpower programs.

Bakke, E. W. *The mission of manpower policy.* Kalamazoo, Mich.: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, April 1969.

Considers two paramount objectives that have traditionally motivated government efforts in the manpower field: (1) amplification of the economic strength of the nation, and (2) improvement of the economic and social well-being of the individual. Suggests that the second objective is being stressed now by government programs to the detriment of the first, thereby bringing about only another form of public assistance which, the author claims, is not the end sought by a positive manpower policy that must be concerned with the total labor force, not just the disadvantaged. Suggested are ways to develop a positive manpower policy that deals with both objectives.

Bertcher, H., Gordon, J. E., Hayes, M. E., & Mial, H. *Role modeling/role playing: A manual for vocational development and employment agencies.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-24-68-34. Washington, D.C.: Manpower Science Services, Inc., 1969.

Product of an experimental and demonstration project in which the staffs of six manpower agencies cooperated to explore how sophisticated use of role-modeling and role-playing techniques could help them in their work with the disadvantaged. Material is directed to counselors, coaches, community aides, vocational instructors, employment agency administrators or anyone who is concerned with employing the disadvantaged.

Blood, M. R., & Hulin, C. L. Alienation, environmental characteristics and worker responses. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1967, Vol. 51, 284-290.

Data gathered from 1900 male workers located in 21 plants in the eastern United States are analyzed to determine the influence of environmental characteristics presumed to index feelings of alienation from middle-class norms. Predictions were made that (1) workers in communities with middle-class norms would function in their jobs differently from alienated workers and would report higher satisfaction on highly skilled jobs; and (2) pay should have a stronger effect on the satisfaction of alienated workers. In the case of blue-collar workers, the study confirmed the predictions.

Bloom, R., & Barry, J. R. Determinants of work attitudes among Negroes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1967, Vol. 51, 291-294.

The motivation-hygiene theory of work attitudes assumes that two independent sets of variables determine job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The generality of this theory was tested with responses from 85 Negro blue-collar workers to a 40-item questionnaire. These data were compared with the same data from 117 white blue-collar workers. It is suggested that the two-factor theory may have different implications when applied to low status work than it would when applied to high status work.

Blumberg, P. I. Corporate responsibility and the social crisis. *Boston University Law Review*, 1970, Vol. 50, No. 2, 12-30.

Seeks to collect and analyze all the relevant judicial, administrative and statutory materials in an effort to understand the development of the standards of corporate responsibility to society in the past, and to determine the present scope of legal authority for business participation in the solution of critical social problems.

Burack, E. H. *Examples of manpower strategies in the public and private sectors.* Chicago: Frank H. Cassell & Associates, 1968.

Short report on three manpower planning studies at a steel company, a state employment agency and a larger retail food firm. Cassell & Associates developed programs for manpower planning, manpower utilization, human resource development, employment and recruiting, new careers, and the recruiting, selecting and training of minority group managers.

Burck, G. A new business for business: Reclaiming human resources. *Fortune*, 1968, Vol 77, No. 1, 159-161, 198-200, 202.

Deals with U.S. business' first tentative steps to struggle with the problem of Negro unemployment and describes efforts to show that the business community can be successful in the field of education. Discussed are (1) projects in South Carolina, California, New York, Chicago and Georgia, among others; (2) several companies that have attempted to hire and train the disadvantaged; and (3) various nonprofit organizations that provide training for the hard-core unemployed Negro.

Burt, S. M., & Striner, H. E. *Toward greater industry and government involvement in manpower development.* Kalamazoo, Mich.: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, September 1968.

Focuses on the problem of providing employment and promotional opportunity for the under-employed and unemployed poor, and suggests that (1) assistance be provided employees by government agencies that first must begin to view themselves as employers and practice what they preach to non-government employers; and (2) government and industry begin to find a way to eliminate those conditions in our country's education system that permit an individual to be disadvantaged when he enters the labor market.

Callender, E. S. Business and the hard-core unemployed: The ghetto subculture. *Personnel*, 1968, Vol. 45, No. 4, 8-14.

Based on an address presented at an American Management Association conference on mobilization for urban action programs. Describes the creation and perpetuation of the ghetto through white attitudes and community norms. Concludes that the ghetto can be transformed by private industry utilizing a training program like the New York Street Academy, in which business would sell itself to unemployed young people in the streets.

Cassell, F. H. The job delivery system: Part I of three-part series. *Chicagoland*, Chicago Association of Commerce and Industry, October 1968.

Discusses the job delivery system, which tends to favor only those who are most advantaged. States that a disadvantaged person can be taken into the job system but that certain strategies are needed to get him there and others to hold him there. Author's strategy includes (1) guaranteeing a job at the end of training, (2) creating a state of mind that screens people into the system rather than out, (3) creating small successes upon which larger ones can be built, (4) facing the reality that differences exist in both people and companies.

Cassell, F. H. *The public employment service: Organization in change.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: Academic Publications, 1968.

Collection of public addresses by Frank H. Cassell, former director of the U.S. Employment Service (March 1966 - September 1967). Included is material not generally available through the *Employment Service Review*. Some titles in this collection are *Jobs for the Hard-to-Employ in Private Enterprises; A Look at the Disadvantaged Employer; Training. The Change Agent. Creative Solutions to Manpower Programs;* and *Planning, Organizing and Using Research Programs in the State Employment Service System.*

Centers, R., & Bugenthal, D. E. Intrinsic and extrinsic job motivations among different segments of the working population. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1966, Vol. 50, 193-197.

A selected cross-section of the working population (692 people) was interviewed with respect to job motivation. The extent to which extrinsic or intrinsic job components were valued was found to be related to occupational level. At higher occupational levels, intrinsic job components (opportunity for self-expression, interest-value of work) were more valued, while at lower occupational levels, extrinsic job components (pay, security) were more valued.

Chamber of Commerce of the U.S. *Boston firm marking 10 years of success in hiring hard core.* Case Study No. 8. Washington, D.C.: Urban Action Clearinghouse, October 1968.

Describes KLH of Cambridge, Massachusetts, a thriving young company that has grown up on a policy of seeking minority group employees, which has produced many benefits to the company, including (1) low turnover, (2) productivity, and (3) employee promotions.

Chamber of Commerce of the U.S. *Where the action is!* Washington, D.C.: Urban Action Clearinghouse, 1971.

Compilation of short descriptions of urban programs in consumer affairs, education, drug abuse, occupational education and other subjects; organized by the National Chamber of Commerce to help businessmen, chambers of commerce and trade associations develop programs in their problem areas.

Cleff, S. H., & Hecht, R. M. Job/man matching in the 70's. *Datamation*, Technical Publishing, Pasadena, California, 1971, Vol. 17, Part 1, No. 3, 22-27.

Describes a system for matching jobs and job applicants with semi-skilled and low-skilled blue-collar and white-collar jobs. Presents a Self-Interview Checklist to gather information on the job applicant's activities preferences and experience, a Job Outline Checklist and a Job Card Sort to gather comparable information on jobs. Stresses the value of testing in the "Things" area for predictive validity in blue-collar employment placement.

Cohn, J. Business and the hard-core unemployed: Promise and performance. *Social Policy*, International Arts and Sciences Press, Inc., White Plains, New York, 1970, Vol. 1, No. 1, 56-60.

Deals with what business has accomplished in delivering on its promises of jobs for the urban poor. Covers: (1) challenges in hard-core hiring, (2) approaches to training, and (3) community-based subsidiaries. Suggests that corporate programs to aid the hard-core are still in a formative period.

Cohn, J. Is business meeting the challenge of urban affairs? *Harvard Business Review*, 1970, Vol. 48, No. 2, 68-82.

Having surveyed 247 major corporations that initiated an urban affairs program several years ago, the author analyzes results and offers guidelines for developing an effective corporate urban affairs program.

Cohn, J. The new business of business: A study of a corporate program for the disadvantaged. *Urban Affairs Quarterly*, 1970, Vol. 6, No. 1, 71-87.

Account of an effort by a major American corporation to develop and operate a program for training, retaining and upgrading disadvantaged workers. Events of this study took place from 1968 to 1970, in the aftermath of the urban riots of the summer of 1967. Discussed are successes and failures of the program some two years into its existence, and its key problem: running a sound business while providing for the needs of a particular group of unskilled and disadvantaged employees.

Cohn, J. New challenges in manpower training. *The conscience of the corporations*. New York: Economic and Manpower Corporation, 1971.

One chapter of a larger study of 247 large corporations' urban affairs programs instituted largely in response to the appeals of government and industry leaders after the report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, in 1968. Discusses the scope and impact of job development and training programs for disadvantaged workers, and suggests that the structure of corporate institutions and the structure of the larger economy determine the extent and success of such programs.

Cohn, J. Public Service Careers: The need for realism. *New Generation*, 1971, Vol. 53, No. 1, 15-20.

Discusses the Public Service Careers (PSC) program, which broadens and deepens the involvement of public agencies in national manpower efforts. Program is a response to considerable evidence that the private sector's specially designed employment and training efforts are not succeeding. Discussed are advantages and disadvantages of PSC and how, taking these into consideration, PSC can be made to work.

Colbert, J., & Hohn, M. *Guide to manpower training*. New York: Behavioral Publications, Inc., 1971.

Intended for operating personnel in manpower training programs and has two basic purposes: (1) to help staff recognize major problems of socially disadvantaged adult trainees, and (2) to provide staff with practical methods for helping trainees cope with these problems. First section deals with the use of a team approach; second section discusses the administrative side of manpower programs and includes a proposed model for training of manpower personnel; final sections discuss philosphical concepts underlying manpower programs and the personal qualms and confusions experienced by operating personnel.

Committee for Economic Development. *Training and jobs for the urban poor.* New York: Author, July 1970.

Reprint of Chapter I of a Statement on National Policy by the same title, including synopses of subsequent chapters of the statement as well. Explores ways of abating poverty that arises from unemployment; considers current manpower training and employment programs, making a number of recommendations for strengthening and improving them; and concerns itself with increasing the productivity of the national economy by making the labor force more productive.

Comptroller General of the United States. *Evaluation of results and administration of the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program in five cities.* Report to the Congress. Washington, D.C. March 24, 1971.

Covers: (1) results of JOBS Program operations, (2) observations on certain problems in the conceptual basis and design of the program, (3) needed improvements in program operations, (4) monitoring JOBS Program contractors, and (5) comments by DOL and NAB. Concludes that JOBS has been effective in focusing the attention of businessmen on employment problems of disadvantaged persons and in eliciting broad responses and commitments by many private employers to hire, train and retain the disadvantaged, but that reports on accomplishments by DOL and NAB are overstated. JOBS Program problems concern the need for more meaningful data on program operations, questions relating to how the program was conceived and designed, and improvements needed in the operation and administration of the program.

Comptroller General of the United States. *Federal manpower training programs: GAO conclusions and observations.* Report to the U.S. Senate, Committee on Appropriations. Washington, D.C. February 17, 1972.

Includes: (1) background on manpower training programs; (2) description of manpower programs: funding and administration; (3) summary of General Accounting Office (GAO) findings, conclusions and recommendations on manpower programs; and (4) overall observations. Findings and conclusions cover program design, eligibility and screening, counseling, occupational and academic training, job development and placement, monitoring, follow-up, program planning, support services, management information systems and financial matters.

The Conference Board. *Education, training and employment of the disadvantaged.* Studies in Public Affairs, No. 4. New York: Author, 1969.

Report on The Conference Board's panel discussions on how to bring the undereducated and untrained disadvantaged into the mainstream of industry's regular work force. Representatives from business, education, government, organized labor, and research and planning organizations discuss three topics: basic education, job training and job placement.

Corwin, R. D. *New workers in the banking industry: A minority report.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 81-34-69-02. New York: New York University, Department of Sociology, June 1970.

Discusses Equal Employment Opportunity emphasis now manifest in some New York banks and is intended to assist in the development of EEO programs. Described are (1) significant changes in the job and labor markets that help create opportunities for minority workers; (2) energetic and willing responses of management; and (3) vital elements of the employment sequence – recruiting, hiring, placement, training, promotion and retention.

Delacorte, A. *Fulfilling the potential of NYC-2: Preventive phonetics for teaching English pronunciation to Spanish-speaking trainees.* New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., August 1971.

Describes Mobilization for Youth's language workshop attempt to teach English to Latin youth who have had little schooling in their native tongue. The method used, preventive phonetics, (1) sequences learning material according to pronunciation rather than lexical structure, (2) teaches the student to know what he wants to say even if he cannot say it yet, and (3) illustrates phonemic differences between the student's native language and English.

Diamond, D. E., & Bedrosian, H. *Industry hiring requirements and the employment of disadvantaged groups.* For the U.S. Department of Labor, Contract No. 81-34-66-25. New York: New York University, School of Commerce, 1970.

Study conducted to collect data on the hiring requirements, preferences and procedures of major industries in New York and St. Louis, as they relate to the disadvantaged worker. Hiring requirement guidelines for a variety of entry- and near-entry-level jobs were developed from the data. Discusses the variability in hiring requirements and practices and its implications for manpower policy and programs.

Drennan, W. D. (ed.) *The fourth strike: Hiring and training the disadvantaged.* New York: American Management Association, 1970.

Collection of articles concerning the employment programs for hiring hard-core unemployed. Topics include initiation, staffing, conduct and financing of the training program in small companies. Some articles are based on case histories from business.

Drob, J., & Sheblak, V. Training the hard-core unemployed. *Manpower*, 1969, Vol. 1, No. 1, 28-30.

Overview of the kind of education and understanding needed to train the hard-core unemployed for an entry-level job. Suggests that in order to be effective, manpower programs must be aware of the background, low educational attainment and motivation of the disadvantaged. Long-term preparation for a job, work sample assessments and crisis counseling are cited as sound techniques to utilize in an employment program.

Eckman, B. K. *Field experiments in manpower issues: The feasibility of coupling available Manpower Development Services with residential addiction treatment facilities: I. The residents' viewpoint.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-36-71-07. New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., November 1971.

Survey of the addict's point of view was the first step in studying the feasibility of coupling Manpower Development Services with a residential addiction treatment facility. Concludes that (1) interest in such a facility is high, (2) "work reality perception" of the resident addict is unclear, and (3) simply providing manpower services is not enough.

Eckman, B. K., & Feifer, I. *Field experiments in manpower issues: The effects of monetary incentives on the learning of remedial English by disadvantaged trainees.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-36-71-07. New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., October 1971.

Disadvantaged Spanish-speaking youth are reinforced for learning to speak, read and write English. Monetary incentives are used with one group, while a point incentive is used with a control group. No significant difference is found in the groups' motivation to learn English; several reasons for this are offered.

Economic Development Council of New York City. *New dimensions in urban action.* Fifth annual meeting report. New York: Author, 1971.

Covers highlights of the fifth annual meeting of the Economic Development Council of New York City, and includes five presentations that stress the use of the capabilities of the business community in relation to vital urban problems.

Educational Testing Service. *Research on the disadvantaged: An annotated list of relevant ETS studies, 1951-1969.* Princeton, N.J.: Author, August 1969.

Lists a number of Educational Testing Service (ETS) research reports and papers, with brief annotations.

Enneis, W. H. The black man in the world of work. *Professional Psychology*, 1970, Vol. 1, No. 5, 435-443.

Based on a symposium presented at the 77th annual convention of the American Psychological Association in Washington, D.C. States that job selection procedures, in spite of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, are generally geared to the white Anglo majority, and that educational and test requirements too often do not demonstrate any validity — even at top job levels. Suggests that applicant selection procedures be an outgrowth of logical organization planning and specific employer needs.

Evans, R. N., Mangum, G. L., & Pragan, O. *Education for employment: The background and potential of the 1968 vocational education amendments.* Policy Papers in Human Resources and Industrial Relations No. 14. Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan and Wayne State University, Institute of Labor & Industrial Relations, 1969.

The National Vocational Education Acts provide for programs of training for industry, agriculture and other occupational areas in order to meet technological changes as they occur. This report deals with (1) the process by which our youth are prepared for employment; (2) historical trends that have increasingly made formal preparation for employment a requirement for success in the job market; (3) legislative and administrative shortcomings that limited the impact of the promising National Vocational Education Act of 1963; (4) the current state of vocational education; and (5) a philosophical justification for a vocational education that can more than prepare youth for employment.

Feifer, I. *Identifying on-the-job behavioral manifestations of drug abuse: A guide for work supervisors.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-36-71-07. New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., October 1971.

Written to help manpower development staff identify the current and potential drug abuser by painting a picture of the drug abuser as he presents himself at work. Descriptive anecdotes of job behavior affected by drug usage are presented.

Feldman, P. H., Gordon, D. M., & Reich, M. Doeringer, P. B. (ed.) *Low-income labor markets and urban manpower programs: A critical assessment.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University, January 1969.

Summarizes the findings of an 18-month study of the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) in Boston and examines the relationship between manpower programs and the economic and social environments in which they operate. Stresses the importance of job quality and accuses CEP of not perceiving that instability among ghetto-resident low-wage workers is as much a result as a cause of the kinds of jobs available.

Ferman, L. A. *Job development for the hard-to-employ.* MDTA Experimental and Demonstration Findings No. 4. U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-24-68-20. Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan and Wayne State University, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, June 1968.

Attempts to specify, clarify and evaluate forms of job development that would serve the needs of Concentrated Employment Programs (CEP) in bridging the gap between hard-core unemployment and work opportunities in the labor market. It is intended as (1) a teaching device for both administrators and line personnel in CEP, and (2) a series of guidelines for any personnel engaged in job development work.

Fiester, K. Putting labor in work training. *Manpower,* 1970, Vol. 2, No. 12, 24-29.

Discusses the work being done by the Human Resources Development Institute (HRDI), a non-profit corporation created by the AFL-CIO Executive Council in 1968. HRDI is attempting to help local labor unions develop training programs for the disadvantaged. A successful component of HRDI's program, the buddy system, is described and a short summary of HRDI's activities across the nation is included.

Fine, S. A. *Guidelines for the design of new careers.* Kalamazoo, Mich.: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, September 1967.

Outgrowth of a workshop held for the Model Cities Conference on Manpower Development at New York University, devoted to equal opportunity for all in the area of work and the designing of all jobs as rungs on career ladders. Employer commitment is named as the most essential step in the development of new careers. Once it is established, two kinds of guidelines must follow: (1) technical, which include structuring of and training for the job; and (2) strategic, which develop a worker's belief in the reality of a career for himself.

Fine, S. A., & Wiley, W. W. *An introduction to functional job analysis: A scaling of selected tasks from the social welfare field.* Methods for Manpower Analysis No. 4. Kalamazoo, Mich.: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, September 1971.

One of a series of papers on functional job analysis and career design. The series describes the development of "A Systems Approach to Task Analysis and Job Design," a course offered by the W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, and developed for specialists in manpower who were responsible for designing jobs with career opportunities in various federal manpower programs, such as New Careers and Public Service Careers. Participants in the course were trained in a systems analysis of organizations and in the designing of jobs from entry-level, requiring little or no previous education and experience, to positions requiring the highest levels of skill and training. This monograph is intended to help people in social welfare agencies exchange accurate information about job content as it affects workers, supervisors, managers, trainers, researchers and classification specialists.

Friedlander, F., & Greenberg, S. Effect of job attitudes, training and organization climate on performance of the hard-core unemployed. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1971, Vol. 55, No. 4, 287-295.

The following potential contributors toward the job performance and retention of 478 hard-core unemployed were explored: (1) biographic and demographic background, (2) attitude toward work, (3) organizational climate in which one is working, (4) effect of a two-week training/orientation program. It was found that the sole correlate of the hard-core unemployed work effectiveness and behavior was the degree of supportiveness of organizational climate in which the hard-core unemployed person was placed.

Gannaway, T. W., & Caldwell, T. J. The Singer/Graflex vocational evaluation system. In A. Sax (ed.), Innovations in vocational evaluation and work adjustment. *Vocational Evaluation and Work Adjustment Bulletin*, 1971, Vol. 4, 41-42.

Descriptive summary of the Singer/Graflex work sample system, outlining its basic features and giving examples of its applications in industrial screening and vocational education in the public schools.

General Electric Company. *General Electric's commitment to progress in equal opportunity and minority relations: A case study of a systems analysis approach to social responsibility programs.* New York: General Electric, Corporate Business Environment, Equal Opportunity/Minority Operation, 1970.

A study of General Electric's involvement in preparing the hard-core unemployed for work. A systems analysis approach was developed based on the integral work of three groups: (1) an executive-level policy panel, (2) a key staff advisory panel, and (3) a panel of minority professionals. Included are a summary of conclusions and recommendations made by the advisory panel's 27 task forces, and a summary of the progress made in the first year toward creating a self-sustaining system of equal opportunity at all levels of the organization.

General Electric Company. Use of the "modeling" approach to behavior change in a social awareness program. *General Electric Personnel Research Bulletin.* No 9, November 1970.

Explains a technique, heretofore proved successful in therapy to effect changes in behavior, that is now being applied experimentally to the problem of integrating minority group members into the work force. Involves the presentation of desired or "model" behaviors on videotape, followed by role-playing to shape, practice and learn the new responses.

Getting Cinderella to the ball: Report reviews experience of 100 companies in hiring the hard-core. *Manpower,* 1970, Vol. 2, No. 7, 11-13.

Summarizes The Conference Board study entitled *Managing Programs for the Disadvantaged.* One hundred companies in private industry, both large and small, share their experiences in hiring the hard-core. The article includes some observations from the final report presented to the Department of Labor.

Ginzberg, E. (ed.) *Manpower agenda for America.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1968.

Evaluation of the forces operating to convert our productive system to an economy of skill, and the problems and difficulties that this transformation has brought in its wake. Efforts to improve the opportunities of children and adults to develop and utilize their potentials are considered, and evaluation is made of how far they have come and how far they still have to go.

Glaser, E. M. *A qualitative evaluation of the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) in Birmingham, Detroit, Los Angeles, San Antonio, Seattle and South Bronx by means of the participant-observation method.* Final report to Office of Evaluation, Manpower Administration. U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 43-8-007-05. Los Angeles: Human Interaction Research Institute, 1969. 2 vols.

(1) Evaluates Concentrated Employment Programs (CEP) as a whole in each city studied, in relation to official program objectives; (2) suggests more effective ways to design programs for enabling individuals to make better use of existing economic opportunities, and for effectively encouraging short- and long-run activity choices likely to bring economic independence and constructive social living in our society; (3) compares CEP program components in the six cities, noting those that appear effective and those that appear ineffective, with observations regarding the reasons, together with any lessons that might be relevant for functional improvement of CEP or for future manpower program planning and implementation.

Glaser, E. M., & Ross, H. L. *A study of successful persons from seriously disadvantaged backgrounds.* Final report for the Office of Special Manpower Programs, U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-05-68-03. Los Angeles: Human Interaction Research Institute, March 31, 1970.

Study to identify the differences between the disadvantaged man who has been able to begin the pull upward in job or education, functioning in society without public assistance, and the disadvantaged man who has not. Reported are what factors coincide with and predispose to the one outcome or the other, and what tentative learnings or leads emerged from the study.

Glennan, T. K., Jr. *Evaluating federal manpower programs: Notes and observations.* Memorandum RM-5743-OEO. Santa Monica, Calif.: The Rand Corporation, September 1969.

Considers the methodology of evaluation and is intended to clarify some of the problems that surround the use of program evaluation by federal agencies, particularly in the area of manpower training. Suggests several steps that could contribute to the usefulness of evaluative data by demonstrating the relationship of program evaluation to the planning process.

Gooding, J. Blue-collar blues on the assembly line. Who's down there? Part one. *Fortune,* 1970a, Vol. 80, No. 7, 69-71, 112-113.

Describes Detroit's inability to deal with its blue-collar workers, more than half of whom are under 30 and unhappy with harsh and uninspiring job disciplines. Owing to inflexible assembly lines, no time for loitering or making preparations to leave work prior to a signal, all car manufacturers are experiencing high absenteeism, high turnover, shoddy work and in some cases even sabotage. States that receptivity to authoritarianism is on the decline and that employers must look into who exactly is working for them and find out why these workers are distressed.

Gooding, J. It pays to wake up the blue-collar worker. Who's down there? Part two. *Fortune,* 1970b, Vol. 80, No. 9, 133-135, 158, 162, 167-168.

States that factory workers can do more and do it better if management will take the steps to create the right, stimulating kind of work setting. Describes some plant situations in which a mutuality of interest between management and the working force has taken place, which result in a warmer atmosphere and an air of trust. Workers describe positive working conditions in terms of freedom, responsibility, teamwork, closeness with supervisors, making decisions and being part of the company. Deals with job enrichment — giving the worker more of a say about what he is doing, organizing workers in teams or groups, doing away with differences in status among workers, and making promotions available. Describes Donnelly Mirrors, Inc., a company that has realized remarkable results because of John F. Donnelly's belief in the common worker and job enrichment. Defines management's problems and advantages gained in utilizing job enrichment and stresses the importance of treating every worker as a valuable entity of the company.

Gooding, J. *The job revolution.* New York: Walker and Company, 1972.

Describes need for more emphasis on the importance of the individual worker by labor and management because of rapid changes in American attitudes during the last decade. Discusses information acquired through interviews with blue- and white-collar workers and junior management personnel, and some companies that have adopted innovative ways of reorganizing and enriching jobs. Covers: (1) questioning of the obligation to work; (2) what's wrong with jobs; (3) effects of job dissatisfaction; (4) alleviating, mitigating, palliating job situations; (5) how the job revolution changes jobs; (6) resolving rather than temporizing problems; (7) new hiring attitudes; and (8) work, future workers and implications for a constantly changing society.

Goodwin, L. *Do the poor want to work? A social-psychological study of work orientations.* Washington: The Brookings Institute, 1972.

Reports the results of a social-psychological study to determine whether the poor, unemployed and underemployed have different orientations toward work than do the regularly employed. Results of a work orientation questionnaire and interviews are broken down into comparisons of welfare and non-welfare mothers, sons and fathers, and race and status.

Gordon, J. E. *Basic factors in programming for the disadvantaged.* An address given to Vocational Education-Special Education Institute. Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan, August 18, 1970.

States that the objectives of programs for the disadvantaged and the techniques they use are products of a number of factors that operate even before the first client has walked through the door. These factors include the way in which the problem is defined; the influences that have shaped that definition; the assumptions made about the causes and maintenance of the problem; and organizational factors including the nature of the sponsor of the program, the program's constituency and source and amount of power, the program's pool of available personnel, and the relationship between the kinds of events with which the program deals and the appropriateness of the organizational structure for dealing with those kinds of events. Taken together, these factors account for almost all of a program's operating style, decisions and problem solutions, and must be taken into consideration if a program is to be designed so that it does what it sets out to do with a minimum of internal strain.

Gordon, J. E. *Group leadership techniques for manpower programs: A self-instructional workshop series.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: Manpower Science Services, Inc., 1973, in press.

An outline of a workshop series for group leaders, describing what the program is, how it works, what group leader behaviors should be, who runs the workshops, who should participate in them, and in what kinds of situations group leader techniques can be used. Suggests materials and exercises to be used as part of the workshop, which consists of groups of eight to 12 staff members who meet once or twice a week for about one and one-half hours for 16 weeks. At each meeting, participants watch a film, discuss it and engage in group exercises. Each meeting is concerned with a specific behavior in group leadership; exercises give each participant an opportunity to practice the behavior individually and with the group as a whole.

Gordon, J. E. & Erfurt, J. C. *Program in manpower studies and JOBS NOW. Placement and after: A manual for coaches and other employment workers.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-24-69-47. Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan and Wayne State University, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, 1972.

Systematizes the techniques and strategies employment workers used in JOBS NOW the manpower agency that developed the coaching role that has subsequently been adopted throughout the country. Main method used is the "critical incident" technique, wherein experienced workers describe examples of effective and ineffective actions they have taken.

Gray, I., & Borecki, T. B. Training programs for the hard-core: What the trainer has to learn. *Personnel,* 1970, Vol. 47, No. 2, 23-29.

Deals with what industrial trainers should consider before facing a classroom of disadvantaged trainees: (1) instructor-trainee relationship, (2) trainee background, (3) instructor flexibility, (4) relevance of material, and (5) practicality of illustrations.

Greenberg, D. H. Employing the training program enrollee: An analysis of employer personnel records. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review,* 1971, Vol. 24, 554-571.

Evaluation of training programs, utilizing follow-up data from the personnel records of companies hiring trainees in vocational or pre-vocational training programs. Data from 16 employers were used. Four employers conducted their own on-the-job program, while the remaining companies hired from one or more neighborhood training centers. Conclusions: (1) on-the-job training trainees are more successful in terms of wages and wage increments; (2) employers seem to have done as well in hiring from the institutional programs as from other sources; (3) success of trainees, like other members of the labor force, depends on the type of firm; hence, job placement is important; and (4) the question of which program and company attributes influence relative success cannot be dealt with satisfactorily at this level of analysis.

Greenleigh Associates, Inc. *Evaluation of impact of the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector Program.* New York: Author, 1970.

Findings, conclusions and recommendations aimed at providing information on the strengths and weaknesses of the JOBS Program – as evidenced by its impact on various segments of the community—and at guiding its future development as an effective manpower program.

Grinker, W. J., Cooke, D. D., & Kirsch, A. W. *Climbing the job ladder: A study of employee advancement in eleven industries.* Prepared for the American Foundation on Automation and Employment, Inc. New York: E.F. Shelley & Co., Inc., 1970.

Reports how non-supervisory people normally progress upward in American private industry. By examining and describing these progressions in 11 major industries, an information base is provided for further consideration of the process widely referred to as "upgrading." Reasons for current interest in upgrading are outlined, and a description is given of upgrading in the context of (1) the nature of the work force, (2) the employer's perspective, (3) the employee's perspective, and (4) types of training provided and associated costs.

Gurin, G. *Inner-city Negro youth in a job training project: A study of factors related to attrition and job success.* MDTA Experimental and Demonstration Findings No. 7. U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-21-14. Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research, 1969.

Report based on interviews and questionnaires, longitudinal in nature, discussing the backgrounds and motivations of some 1,500 trainees who went through the first year of the Chicago JOBS Project in 1963-1964. Focuses on individual rather than program success, and covers (1) relationships between trainee characteristics and attitudes and their greater or lesser "success," noting some possible implications for program planning; and (2) characteristics of the training program and trainees' responses to the different aspects of the program.

Gurin, G. *A national attitude study of trainees in MDTA institutional programs.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research, 1970.

Deals with a study of trainees enrolled in the institutional job training program supported under the Manpower Development and Training Act. Covers approximately 6,000 trainees in a nationwide sample of over 300 training classes and is mainly concerned with attitudes and motivations of trainees and how these relate to (1) a trainee's decision to complete or drop out of the program, and (2) a trainee's job history in the post-program world.

Haakenson, R. The urban crisis: What one company is doing. *Management Review,* 1968, Vol. 57, No. 7, 8-16.

Adaptation of an address given by the author to the American Management Association's conference, Management for a Better America: Mobilization for Urban Action Programs, in New York City. Describes Smith Kline & French Laboratories' move from partial funding and part-time endeavors to full funding and full-time employees for (1) neighborhood centers, (2) house rehabilitation programs, (3) volunteer agencies, (4) school scholarship programs, and (5) neighborhood parks and playgrounds.

Hansknecht, J. L., Jr. Hard core and minority group training activities surveyed in Detroit. *Training and Development Journal,* 1969, Vol. 23, No. 11, 50-51.

Reviews Detroit's chapter of American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) and its Community Service Committee's survey of 79 firms responding to questionnaires on the hiring of the hard-core unemployed. It was found that (1) two-thirds of firms with ASTD members as employees are involved in the hiring of the hard-core unemployed; (2) one-half have specialized training programs assisting these groups in the attainment of entry-level, hourly-paid positions; (3) only 20 percent of these firms have developed training programs to upgrade minority group employees; and (4) the majority of ASTD members are willing to share their experiences and techniques in such hiring and training.

Harrison, B. National manpower policy and public service employment. *New Generation*, 1971, Vol. 53, No. 1, 3-14.

Discusses (1) the ineffectiveness of education and training as anti-poverty and manpower policy instruments; (2) the importance of credentials and tests over skill or knowledge; (3) the opportunity given some disadvantaged workers to demonstrate their abilities, despite the statistical "failure" of the NAB JOBS Program; (4) the critical shortage of important public services and the needs of the disadvantaged for expanded work opportunities; (5) needed changes in attitudes and policies of administrative personnel; and (6) reasons why a public employment program can be expected to improve the economic welfare of the disadvantaged.

Helfand, A., & Feifer, I. *Problems of the disadvantaged in test taking*. Unpublished paper. New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., 1971.

Working paper that discusses four problems commonly encountered in giving paper-and-pencil tests to disadvantaged persons: test anxiety, limited reading/arithmetic skills, inhibiting effect of examiner from different cultural/racial background, and lack of job relatedness of tests. Strategies to minimize each problem are given.

Herrick, N. Q. Who's unhappy at work and why. *Manpower*, 972, Vol. 4, No. 1, 2-7.

Report on a national survey of more than 1,500 workers, conducted late in 1969 by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan under contract from the U.S. Department of Labor's Employment Standards Administration. The report attempts to answer the question: Who is dissatisfied and why? Recommendations for alleviating worker dissatisfaction are derived from the interpretation of the survey's results.

Hilasky, H. J. How poverty area residents look for work. *Monthly Labor Review*, 1971, Vol. 94, No. 3, 41-45.

Presents findings of Urban Employment Survey on job-seeking methods used by poverty area residents, 16 years old or over, of the Concentrated Employment Program areas of Atlanta, Chicago, Detroit, Houston, Los Angeles, and New York City. Describes major variances in job-seeking behavior, categorized by sex, ethnic origin, and labor force characteristics. Based on interviews conducted between July 1968 and June 1969. Also examines differences in job-seeking between poverty area population and the balance of population in Atlanta and Detroit. States that poverty area residents in both cities rely less frequently on employer contacts and newspaper ads than nonpoverty area residents and more frequently on public employment services and community organizations. Otherwise, differences between the two areas are not substantial.

Hodgson, J. D., & Brenner, M. H. Successful experience: Training hard-core unemployed. *Harvard Business Review*, 1968, Vol. 46, No. 5, 148-156.

Describes Lockheed Aircraft Corporation's program to train the hard-core unemployed in two locations: (1) Marietta, Georgia, where recruiting efforts were aimed at the younger unemployed in Atlanta; and (2) Sunnyvale, California, where the target group was older Mexican-American field laborers around San Jose, most of whom are heads of households with dependents. Article discusses to what Lockheed attributes the success of the programs, what Lockheed learned, and why it wants to not only continue the programs but expand them.

Hoyt, K. B., Evans, R. N., Mackin, E. F., & Mangum, G. L. *Career education: What it is and how to do it.* Salt Lake City: Olympus Publishing, 1972.

Describes career education – what it is, why we need it, how it developed, how to do it, and how to get it. States that to achieve a truly career-oriented education requires (1) major changes in the way we now conduct the business of education; (2) new structure and innovations; (3) a new relationship between that which is now academic, general and vocational in education; (4) a greater interaction among home, school, and community; (5) more specific objectives; (6) a change in philosophy; and (7) a new set of values. Career education's goal is to make work possible, meaningful and satisfactory to every individual.

Humanic Designs Corporation. *A handbook for upgrading low-skilled workers.* MDTA Research and Demonstration Findings No. 13. U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-34-70-04. New York: Author, 1971a.

Contains procedural and methodological guidelines for individuals and organizations undertaking in-plant programs to upgrade low-skill workers to higher levels of work and productivity. Also an aid to train professionals in the methods and approaches of in-plant training. Included are guidelines for (1) program planning and development, (2) program operation, and (3) program evaluation.

Humanic Designs Corporation. *Upgrading the underemployed in the plant environment: Part I, September 1, 1969- February 28, 1971.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. ML 82-34-70-04. Manhasset, N.Y.: Author, 1971b.

Divided into four sections. Section 1 summarizes the design and implementation of upgrading programs intended to increase the upward mobility of low-skill workers in the American Telephone and Telegraph Co. Section 2 deals with the same type of program in a community agency, the Columbus, Ohio Project Upgrade Model Cities Program. Section 3 discusses a managerial training program in the concepts of upgrading at Northwestern University's graduate school of business administration. Two seminars on upgrading, one with labor union representation and one with corporate managers, are reported. Section 4 discusses a long-term follow-up on an earlier upgrading project using High Intensity Training (HIT) and analyzes the effects of wages, subsequent educational experience, and productivity changes possibly attributable to HIT training.

Humanic Designs Corporation. *Upgrading the underemployed in the work environment: A summary of the 4-volume report.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-34-68-19. Manhasset, N.Y.: Author, July 1969.

Meant to be used as a comprehensive set of guidelines in managing, marketing and implementing training programs for upgrading the underemployed worker. It is the third Humanic Designs program in this field and is an 18-month project during which Humanic Designs acted as systems manager for a multi-city upgrading project, in which the technique of High Intensity Training was used. Describes the activities of both the Corporation and the individual city projects during the contract period. Meant to serve as a handbook for Humanic Designs' next phase of upgrading endeavors and also as a guide for other manpower training programs.

Humanic Designs Corporation. *Upgrading the underemployed worker: Five years of experimentation and demonstration: A summary.* Manhasset, N.Y.: Author, 1970.

Summary of work attempting to upgrade the under-employed worker, divided into four phases: (1) a period of intensive training that permits rapid transmission of skills required to upgrade unskilled workers; (2) a period to establish greater control over the work environment and to increase the effectiveness of training methodology; (3) a period to establish organizational and administrative means for replicating the upgrading experiment on a larger scale; and (4) a period of experimentation in which new conditions for experimental replication are explored. Also included are descriptions of (1) the upgrading experience, (2) the upgrading approach and methodology, and (3) implications and future directions.

Janger, A. R. *Employing the disadvantaged: A company perspective.* New York: The Conference Board, 1972.

Evaluative report on the progress made by the National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB) on its JOBS Programs. Includes comparisons between NAB and non-NAB companies, reviews of the different programs for the disadvantaged utilized by NAB companies and comments on the difficulties of on-the-job training programs.

Janger, A. R., & Shaeffer, R. G. *Managing programs to employ the disadvantaged.* Personnel Policy Study No. 219. New York: The Conference Board, 1970.

Reviews data from 100 NAB companies and reports on their management of programs to employ the disadvantaged. Emphasis is on how companies provide for individual differences in ability and potential in designing their programs. Case histories from seven company programs are reviewed. Comments on the integration of employment program management and company management are also included.

Jewish Employment and Vocational Service. *Work samples: Signposts on the road to organizational choice. Final report on an experimental and demonstration project.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-40-67-40. Chicago: Autnor, 1968.

Deals with one test of the work sample program, devised by the Philadelphia Jewish Employment and Vocational Service, performed in cooperation with the North Philadelphia Human Resources Development Center of the Pennsylvania State Employment Service. Concerned with assessing the potential of a work sample program for improving counseling and placement services provided to disadvantaged applicants for whom traditional paper-and-pencil tests are invalid.

Job broker for the poor. *Manpower*, 1970, Vol. 2, No. 7, 15-18.

Defines the role that the National Urban League plays in placing the disadvantaged worker. With money provided by the Manpower Development and Training Act, the League is responsible for convincing employers to hire and train the poor and minorities. Article outlines the structure of the League's on-the-job training staff and discusses the difficulties in persuading employers to hire the poor.

Johnson, L. A. *Employing the hard-core unemployed*. Research Study No. 98. New York: American Management Association, 1969.

Based on data collected from interviews with 43 companies concerning their programs for the hard-core unemployed. Emphasis is on identifying, recruiting, testing and hiring, training, and supervising the disadvantaged.

Kennedy Family Service Center, Inc. *Facts and fallacies about the older worker*. Boston: Author, May 1969.

Attempts to (1) characterize the older worker based on a set of findings, (2) describe the three-year Older Worker Program's orientation and focus; (3) recommend approaches and programs that deal generically with the problem of the older worker, and (4) describe program elements and findings based on particular program experiences.

Kent, W. P., Bishop, R. L., Byrnes, M. L., Frankel, S. M., Herzog, J. K., & Griffith, W. S. *Job-Related Adult Basic Education*. Prepared for U.S. Office of Economic Opportunity, Office of Research and Evaluation. Falls Church, Va.: System Development Corporation, February 1971, 2 vols.

Analyzes some current approaches to job-related Adult Basic Education (ABE), argues for needed drastic changes in these approaches, and presents recommendations to bring about both short- and long-range improvements. Two volumes: (I) *Summary and Recommendations*, an account of the entire project and its conclusions; and (II) *Approach and Detailed Findings*, a supplement to Vol. I. Vol. I covers proposed guidelines for job-related ABE programs, basis for the guidelines, an illustrative model program, and methods of developing a program. Vol. II covers background and approach, goals of job-related ABE programs, program organization, setting and schedule, materials and methods, student motivation, assessment, counseling, placement, staff characteristics, program evaluation, funding methods, and critical operating issues and problems.

Kirby, F. C., & Castagna, P. A. *Benefit-cost analysis of TAT phase I worker training*. Training and Technology Project, U.S. Atomic Energy Commission. Oak Ridge, Tenn.: University of Tennessee, Department of Economics, July 1969.

Analysis of the benefits and costs of the Training and Technology Project at Oak Ridge, Tennessee. The computations of benefits and costs are based on two random samples of 70 individuals each. The five occupational areas studied are: (1) mechanical drafting, (2) welding, (3) machining, (4) industrial electronics, and (5) physical testing–quality control. Results indicate (1) a healthy rate of return to both individual and federal government, and (2) social as well as economic benefit.

Kirchner, W., & Lucas, J. Some reserach on motivating the hard core. *Training in Business and Industry*, June 1971, 30-31.

Briefly summarizes research conducted at the 3M Factory Training Center in St. Paul, Minnesota. An attempt was made to measure not only customary "work attitude" training, but also the attitudes at time of hire of whites, blacks, American Indians and Spanish-Americans, using a forced-choice questionnaire. It was found that workers' job attitudes were adequate but that more training was needed that tells workers what needs to be done on the job. Typical strategies of motivation, the authors conclude, are not applicable to those coming from cultural settings of poverty and racial oppression.

Kirkpatrick, J. J., Ewen, R. B., Barett, R. S., & Katzell, R. A. *Testing and fair employment: Fairness and validity of personnel tests for different ethnic groups*. New York: New York University Press, 1968.

Examines the issues in testing for employment selection. Discusses validity of tests for different ethnic and racial groups. Included are results of five studies conducted to examine differential validities of selection tests.

Kirsch, A. W., & Cooke, D. D. *Upgrading the workforce: Problems and possibilities*. U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-34-70-26. New York: E.F. Shelley & Co., Inc., January 1971.

Describes early experiences of 20 selected upgrading programs, and focuses on constraints encountered in program design and implementation and various techniques and responses which may overcome these constraints. Included are case notes divided into problems of (1) communications, (2) structure, (3) attitude, and (4) cost. Meant not as a definite plan for program implementation, but as a presentation of problems and possibilities to provide greater opportunities for non-supervisory workers.

Kohlberg, W. H. Upgrading the working poor. *Manpower*, 1969, Vol. 1, No. 11, 24-28.

Short article on the Department of Labor's attempt to upgrade the underemployed worker. Author summarizes the successes of selected upgrading programs and emphasizes the need for more in all manpower projects. He suggests that the upgrading concept be applied to all workers in order to stimulate progressions in skill and pay in industry.

Kunce, J. T., & Cope, C. S. (eds.) *Rehabilitation and the culturally disadvantaged*. Columbia, Mo.: University of Missouri, Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute, September 1969.

Synthesis of hundreds of articles, reports and books covering various aspects of poverty and the disadvantaged, divided into chapters written by various staff members of the Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute. Covers: (1) personal, social and psychological characteristics, (2) counseling concerns, and (3) program outcomes and organizational implications; and hopes to help solve the problem of providing services to the culturally disadvantaged, who need them most but who are often least ready and able to receive and profit from them.

Lawyers' Committee for Civil Rights Under Law, & The National Urban Coalition. *Falling down on the job: The United States Employment Service and the disadvantaged.* Washington, D.C.: Authors, April 1971.

Analysis of the 100 percent federally funded U.S. Employment Service (ES) system with special focus on its treatment of the poor and minorities. Based on interviews and document reviews conducted at both federal and state levels over a six-month period ending March 30, 1971. States reviewed: California, Florida, Indiana, Illinois, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Texas and Virginia. Includes: (1) ES and manpower history and background, (2) Labor Department attempts at ES reform, (3) ES network, (4) ES and work requirement provisions: the WIN experience, and (5) special problems.

Levitan, S. A., Mangum, G. L., & Taggart, R. *Economic opportunity in the ghetto: The partnership of government and business.* Baltimore, Md.: Johns Hopkins Press, 1970.

Analyzes joint government-business programs to expand economic opportunity for ghetto residents, describing their successes and failures to date and projecting their potential impact. Problems of the central city and ghetto economies are briefly discussed, and several policy directions are suggested.

Little, J. K., & Whitfield, R. W. *Follow-up of 1965 graduates of Wisconsin schools of vocational, technical, and adult education.* Madison, Wis.: University of Wisconsin, Industrial Relations Research Institute, Center for Studies in Vocational & Technical Education, June 1970.

Determines what happened to students who completed schools of vocational, technical and adult education, the extent to which the vocational program has helped them obtain employment, and the extent to which other factors may have played a role in their selection of a post-high school vocational-technical program and subsequent employment. States that in general graduates are satisfied with their post-high school vocational experiences; that they found educational experience was useful in getting, holding, or changing jobs; and that their experiences outside of school were important in selecting a vocational program as well as in getting a job. Improvements suggested by students are for courses, instructors and training for a wider range of jobs.

Lockheed-California Co. *The first year of operation: Watts-Willowbrook Plant, February 1, 1970 to January 31, 1971.* Los Angeles: Author, 1971.

Discusses the first 217 disadvantaged people put to work by Lockheed's Watts-Willowbrook Plant in Los Angeles, stressing: (1) recruitment, (2) screening, (3) training, (4) ethnic mix, (5) trainee statistics, (6) manpower buildup, (7) product line, (8) supervisory ratio, (9) production efficiency, (10) cost reduction, (11) quality of production, (12) annual payroll, (13) safe working conditions, (14) credit union participation, (15) attendance, (16) the "buddy" system, (17) rap sessions, (18) community service, and (19) sports activities. A summary of conclusions is included. (This booklet is Appendix F of this manual.)

Lorber, F., & Altschuler, H. *Fulfilling the potential of NYC-2: Using government agencies for training the disadvantaged for employment in the public and private sectors.* New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., 1971.

Monograph on a successfully utilized training-employment model. The Federal Civil Service System provided the manpower training to hard-core youth, which led to jobs within the civil service system or in the private sector. Features of the model training-employment program, components of the model, and comparisons between this model program and the typical Neighborhood Youth Corps-2 training are discussed.

Mahoney, R. J., Cope, C. S., & Campbell, R. R. (eds.) *Rehabilitation and the culturally disadvantaged: A digest.* Columbia, Mo.: University of Missouri, Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute, 1969.

Monograph digest *Rehabilitation and the Culturally Disadvantaged*, a comprehensive study of the social and psychological characteristics of the disadvantaged, including counseling concerns, program structure and outcomes. Designed to meet the needs of the busy counselor who wants an overview of how to (1) provide professionals with a perspective in understanding the disadvantaged, and (2) suggest approaches to improve and evaluate counseling services.

Marks, S. B. Employer techniques for upgrading low-skill workers. *Proceedings of the 21st Annual Winter Meeting of the Industrial Relations Research Association.* Manhasset, N.Y.: Humanic Designs Corporation, 1968.

Discusses the development and initial application of several techniques to deal with employers who (1) feel they have no time or money to train and upgrade, (2) see language difference as a barrier to promotion, and (3) perceive low-skill workers as lacking in ability or ambition. Also included are methods to help employers initiate planned upgrading of their low-skill employees.

Marshall, P. Testing without reading. *Manpower*, 1971, Vol. 3, No. 5, 7-12.

Discusses some of the developments in testing, beginning with the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB), and ending with the Non-verbal Aptitude Test Battery (NATB) and work samples. Briefly describes the format and content of the NATB, and conditions under which its use would be indicated. Special emphasis is given to the importance of making meaningful assessments of people who do not perform well on tests requiring reading.

McCall, J. J. *Economics of information and job search.* Memorandum RM-5745-OEO. Santa Monica, Calif.: The Rand Corporation, November 1968.

Presents two models characterizing the job-searching activities of the unemployed: (1) an optimal search policy, wherein the searcher is assumed to know the distribution of wages for his particular skills and remains unemployed as long as offers are less than some particular value; and (2) a more general model of unemployment that includes discounting and the length of employment. Also included is an adaptive search policy. It is suggested the reader be familiar with economics and dynamic programming.

McDonald, C. H., & Hood, J. F., Supervising the "unemployable." *Supervisory Management*, 1969, Vol. 14, No. 2, 2-6.

Discusses techniques a supervisor can use in facing the challenge of employing the "unemployable." Topics discussed are (1) the need for understanding, (2) gaining insight about the employee from various agencies, (3) motivating the disadvantaged employee by building confidence, (4) on-the-job training, (5) preparing other workers, (6) bolstering the employee's ego, (7) giving honest praise, and (8) periodic counseling.

McHugh, P. *New approaches to work sample utilization.* New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., 1971.

Suggests new applications and uses for the work sample technique, a method for assessing vocational potential. The work sample is a set of standardized tasks representative of the actual range of activities that comprise particular occupational training or job areas. Author cites work sample systems that can be purchased and identifies applications of the work sample technique for the potential user.

McHugh, P. *The work sample: Reality-based assessment of vocational potential.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-34-69-21. New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., 1970.

Describes in detail how to set up and operate a work sample assessment program. Provides a decision chart for weighing priorities in choosing tasks for the work samples.

McKay, R. V. Job training programs in urban poverty areas. *Monthly Labor Review*, 1971, Vol. 94, No. 8, 36-41.

Based on household interviews with persons 16 years old and over residing in Concentrated Employment Program areas of Atlanta, Chicago, Detroit, Houston, Los Angeles, and New York City. Depicts employment situation and shows barriers to employment in poverty areas. States that of 815,000 persons interviewed, about one in six (135,000) completed some type of training: (1) school, (2) Armed Forces, (3) apprenticeship, or (4) special manpower programs.

McMurrin, S. M. (ed.) *Functional education for disadvantaged youth.* New York: Committee for Economic Development, 1971.

Collection of articles concerned with effectively joining together the efforts of education, industry and business so that basic academic instruction, practical experience and on-the-job training will ensure employment for the disadvantaged. The articles are (1) *The Concept of Functional Education*, (2) *Preparing Youth for Employment: The Role of the Public Schools*, (3) *Seven Strategies for Success in Vocational Education*, and (4) *Education and Urban Youth*.

Mentec Corporation. *How to maintain a social reinforcement program.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-05-70-05. Los Angeles: Author, February 1972a.

One of four manuals designed to aid supervisors in the training of employees, particularly hard-core disadvantaged. Its specific purpose is to enable management to strengthen, broaden and generally maintain an established, operational reinforcement system. Covers: (1) monitoring, (2) evaluating, (3) developing a feedback system, (4) maintaining the feedback system, (5) correcting deficiencies, (6) integrating the existing company incentive system. (See Arkin, et al; and Smith, et al, for companion manuals.)

Mentec Corporation. *Operation Pathfinder: Shaping work behavior of ex-offenders and other disadvantaged people using social reinforcement techniques.* Final report. U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-05-70-05. Los Angeles: Author, April 1972b.

Documents results of a project that demonstrated application of behavior modification techniques to juvenile parolees and other hard-core disadvantaged by training supervisors to use these techniques – particularly social reinforcement (SR) in shaping work habits and social behaviors of their subordinates. Reports methodology of acquiring subjects, placing them on jobs, training supervisors, counseling subjects and collecting data. Findings indicate SR applied by supervisors to parolees and adult disadvantaged result in (1) longer job retention, (2) less absenteeism and tardiness, (3) greater productivity and work quality, and (4) fewer encounters with law enforcement.

Nadler, L. Helping the hard-core adjust to the world of work. *Harvard Business Review*, 1970, Vol. 48, No. 2, 117-126.

Reports on a study that looked at the support systems of the Boeing Company, Eastman Kodak Co., Westinghouse Electric Corporation, United Air Lines and Banker's Trust Company. Article contends the manpower movement for unemployed persons will fail unless corporations supplement job training with carefully devised systems to change the attitude of the unemployed. Corporate support systems for absorbing unemployed into the work force have five elements: (1) organizational involvement, (2) pre-training preparation, (3) training support, (4) job linkage, and (5) follow-up procedures.

National Alliance of Businessmen. *Guidelines for introducing the hard-core unemployed to a productive job.* New York: Author, 1968.

Booklet for future employers of the hard-core unemployed to acquaint the employer with certain steps he may have to take to succeed in the NAB JOBS Program. These steps are (1) planning, (2) hiring, (3) training, (4) providing extra support services, and (5) retaining the disadvantaged.

National Association of Manufacturers, Urban Affairs Division. *Effectively employing the hard-core: An aid to companies joining the growing efforts of the industry to help resolve basic social problems.* New York: Author, 1968.

Overview of industry's ideas on employing the hard-core unemployed, sponsored by the National Association of Manufacturers. Contents cover community relations, union participation, restructuring jobs, orientation procedures, support systems to prevent job dropout, and evaluation.

National Restau ant Association. *Career ladders in the foodservice industry*. New York: Author, 197 .

Results of a examination of the non-management career systems of 18 companies. Concludes t iat training and development of non-management personnel in the foodservice ndustry will be most successful if integrated with other aspects of the company's ongoing operations. A model for a large foodservice operation is presented.

Neiswender, L. *Maximizing your training efficiency: The application of behavioral principles to job training. Training manual for work supervisors.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-36-71-07. New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., 1971.

Developed to meet four outstanding needs of existent public and private manpower training and development programs: (1) effective solutions to training problems for which trainers have not been prepared, (2) concrete ways of how to maximize one's training efficiency, (3) instruction in both behavioral and technical skills for total preparation of the trainee, and (4) proper training of trainers, such as foremen and line supervisors, who often have neither the experience nor the desire to serve as trainer-managers of the unskilled. Manual is intended to be used with a workbook by the same title (see below).

Neiswender, L. *Maximizing your training efficiency: The application of behavioral principles to job training. Workbook.* New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., 1971.

Workbook is an integral part of the training manual of the same title. Immediately after the manual teaches the reader a small segment of material, the workbook permits him to actually practice what has been taught. (See manual above.)

Neiswender, L. *Maximizing your training efficiency: A programmed instruction course in how to enhance motivation and productivity through the application of contingency management principles of reinforcement.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-34-69-21. New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., 1970.

Developed to (1) instruct work supervisors how to function as trainers, (2) provide concrete "how-to's" in presenting guidelines and directions to trainees, and (3) demonstrate how behavioral skills can be taught along with technical skills. Manual is based on two assumptions: (1) supervisors can be taught "how-to's" via a programmed instruction course focusing on the proper utilization of reinforcement principles, and (2) job-required behavioral skills can be taught by the work supervisor himself in the same manner as technical job skills.

New Jersey Community Action Training Institute. *How to hustle a job.* Trenton, N.J.: Author, 1972.

Brochure on searching for a job, written in street vernacular, including brief paragraphs on (1) where to look, (2) how to "case" a company, (3) how to handle the interview, (4) how to keep the job, (5) how to hustle a better job, (6) how to hustle the money to get started, and (7) some other possibilities and problem areas.

New tools for getting the unemployed into jobs. *Manpower*. 1969, Vol. 1, No. 1, 15-18.

Report on the use of the work sample technique to aid the hard-core unemployed in applying for a job. The article discusses the work sample procedure in terms of a guidance tool for vocational services.

Oak Ridge Associated Universities. *Tour, test and interview: A model for recruitment of disadvantaged persons into a manpower training program.* Oak Ridge, Tenn.: Author, July 1970.

Describes methods and tests used at the Training and Technology Project, Oak Ridge, Tennessee, to evaluate whether a candidate will profit from training. Workable procedures for recruiting disadvantaged persons for training include (1) encouraging applicant to learn as much as possible about a program before he is appointed, (2) collecting and evaluating pertinent information about each potential trainee, (3) selecting applicants via a selection team comprised of the Employment Service, training supervisor, a trainee services staff member, and a representative of the sponsor agency.

Oak Ridge Associated Universities. *Training and Technology: An industry/education partnership for industrial manpower development.* Oak Ridge, Tenn.: Author, June 1972.

Describes the Training and Technology program at Oak Ridge, Tennessee, conceived as a demonstration program to join the existing resources of industry, education and government to create a new capacity for training unemployed persons in job skills that are in strong demand in modern, technology-based industry. Includes (1) the principal operating and contributing partners in this project, (2) their interaction in the worker-training program, and (3) requisites for industry application and replication of the Oak Ridge experience.

Oak Ridge Associated Universities. *Training and Technology: Selection research. Lessons in the development of a work sample.* Oak Ridge, Tenn.: Author, November 1971.

Discusses the findings of an intensive selection research project conducted in the summer of 1971 that focused on experimentally administering four tests to a pilot group of 24 trainees, half of whom were identified by training supervisors as the best performers in the training area and half of whom who were identified as the worst. The primary thrust was in investigating results of a recently developed Training and Technology "work sample" device for selection purposes. Three other tests were examined as well: the Army Beta, the Minnesota Paper Form Board and the Oral Directions Test. Results showed no strong predictive ability in any of the tests in terms of differentiating between trainees identified as good performers and those identified as poor ones.

Orvi, F. I. *Fulfilling the potential of NYC-2: Guidelines in the utilization of training incentives.* New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., 1971.

Introductory orientation to using training incentives in manpower programs. Key principles of reinforcement theory are presented so that Neighborhood Youth Corps training instructors can incorporate incentive learning into their teaching programs.

Passett, B. A. & Parker, G. M. *New Careers in action.* Trenton, N.J.: New Jersey Community Action Training Institute, Inc., May 1969.

Four articles discussing (1) the concept of New Careers as a strategy for resolving a shortage of skilled workers for human services and a scarcity of jobs for millions of under-employed and unemployed, and (2) the impediments in the way of New Careers, along with some suggestions for removing them. Authors are staff members of the New Jersey Community Action Training Institute, a nonprofit organization that provides training services for agencies and people working in the war against poverty.

Pierson, F. C. *Community manpower services for the disadvantaged.* Kalamazoo, Mich.: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, July 1972.

Concerned with the task of developing a strong and balanced structure of services for the disadvantaged at state and local government levels. Attempts to meet the needs of the present manpower world in the absence of a nationally designed comprehensive manpower program, a proposed plan for which is now before Congress, and prepares the local community to embrace an intelligently conceived national policy, should Congress pass legislation for same. Discusses: (1) designing a community manpower delivery system, and (2) choosing goals and strategies. Concludes that a community manpower services delivery system constitutes the most effective framework to deal with complex problems of the community's disadvantaged sectors.

Pierson, F. C. *Designing a community manpower delivery system.* Kalamazoo, Mich.: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, April 1971.

Part of a broader study that examines what decentralization would mean for the country's manpower development programs and what steps communities will need to take if a policy of decentralization is to be successful. Draws on three sources of material: (1) statistics from the Manpower Administration and other government sources, (2) reports on training programs in six large Mid-Atlantic cities, and (3) personal interviews with officials and close observers of these programs. Covers the decentralization issue, the existing structure, a framework for local manpower policy, and six levels of action.

Price, C. R. *New directions in the world of work.* A conference report. Kalamazoo, Mich.: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, March 1972.

Report of a conference addressed to a range of problems workers are finding with their jobs and what new directions might be sought to deal with these problems. Conference participants represented management, unions, the federal government, universities, magazines and The Ford Foundation. Explores: (1) causes and consequences of blue-collar worker alienation from present jobs, and (2) new directions being taken and others to be taken to "humanize" the quality of work. Covers worker attitudes, work itself, effects of occupational change, the systems approach, production versus people, new careers, and strategies for improving the work place and the quality of work.

Project Build, Inc. *A manpower demonstration program.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-09-69-37. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, 1970.

Description of Project Build, Inc., a nonprofit training institution sponsored by the Greater Washington Central Labor Council, AFL-CIO, and the Washington Building and Construction Trades Council, AFL-CIO, to train experienced but inadequately trained construction workers in remedial education and skill training in nine crafts: bricklaying, carpentry, cement masonry, electrical work, painting, plastering, plumbing, sheet metal work and steamfitting.

Purcell, T. V., & Webster, R. Window on the hard-core world. *Harvard Business Review*, 1969, Vol. 47, No. 4, 118-129.

Based on an intensive study of the Westinghouse Electric Corporation's Occupational Training School. Through transcribed interviews, the authors show how this program attempted to meet and understand people of the ghetto in order to get them into industry.

Quinn, R. P., Fine, S. A., & Levitan, S. A. *Turnover and training: A social-psychological study of disadvantaged workers.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan, Survey Research Center, September 1970.

Compares two groups of disadvantaged black workers in a large manufacturing company: one group took part in a training program before being placed in an entry-level job; the other group was not trained, and was put on the job directly after being hired. Answers the following questions: (1) What factors were associated with turnover in the job among the directly hired and the trained workers? (2) What changes did the training program effect in the trainees? (3) Did workers who had completed the training program have significantly greater success in keeping a company job than those not trained?

Quinn, R. P., Levitin, T., & Eden, D. *The multi-million dollar misunderstanding: An attempt to reduce turnover among disadvantaged workers.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan, Survey Research Center, 1971.

Documents an unnamed company's ambitious, expensive and unsuccessful attempt to solve the problem of high turnover. Describes how hard-core unemployed were hired for jobs involving the assembly of heavy machinery, but 42% left the company within their first six weeks in spite of high wages. Describes company's development of a vestibule training program providing trainees with six weeks of instruction, a good hourly wage during training and a guaranteed job at the completion of the training program. Missing in the program were (1) knowledge of what specific jobs trainees would hold, (2) teaching of specific skills relevant to imminent jobs, (3) on-the-job training, because of union regulations. Points out that this training program mistakenly attributed turnover to characteristics of workers — work-related beliefs, attitudes of entry-level employees and specific skill levels — rather than to characteristics of the job. Statistics based on a group of trainees and a control group of untrained workers showed that there was no significant difference in rate of turnover between the two groups. Almost all measures associated with turnover involved characteristics of the worker's job and/or his demographic characteristics or certain deeply ingrained life experiences — neither of which (according to the authors) can be altered by training. Measures of beliefs, attitudes, or other aspects of personality were not related to turnover at all. Study makes the point that too many training programs are designed to mold workers to fit an existing industrial system rather than to modify the organization so that it is compatible with the needs of the workers.

Rancho Los Amigos Hospital. *Final report to the U.S. Department of Labor on the Employment Demonstration Project at Rancho Los Amigos Hospital, Downey, California: Covering the period September 1, 1967 through February 28, 1969.* Downey, Calif.: Author, July 1970.

Covers the second phase of the Employment Demonstration Project that began in September 1967. Study of the first phase indicated that the use of the hospital workshop for counseling in an environment of concurrent work activity provided a workable foundation for resolving problems of chronic unemployment when complicated by physical disability. Major objectives of Phase 2 are to demonstrate that this work/counseling model can apply to female trainees as well and to individuals more severely disabled than had been included in the first phase. Additional objectives focus on demonstrating new or modified techniques.

Redesigned application form takes ghetto life into account. *Employee Relations Bulletin*, Report No. 1121, November 20, 1968, 6-9.

Short report on a hiring program for the hard-core unemployed, directed by Computing and Software, Inc., a subsidiary of Whittaker Corp. Designers of the program developed an employment application and personnel record which they believe takes ghetto life into account. Highlights of the program are (1) individualized classroom instruction, (2) recognition of accomplishment, (3) leadership recognition, (4) cultivating a sense of belonging, and (5) one-to-one ratio in on-the-job training.

Reubens, B. G. *The hard-to-employ: European experience.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1968.

About manpower programs in nine European countries – Sweden, United Kingdom, France, Italy, West Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, Norway and Denmark – attempts to evaluate the extent to which these countries contribute to their national objective of keeping the unemployment rate as low as possible. Three financial approaches to encourage the hiring of the hard-to-employ are reviewed: (1) financial incentives in the form of wage subsidies or tax incentives, (2) regional subsidy to employers to expand development of employment programs, and (3) special loans to the hard-to-employ.

Richardson, Bellows, Henry & Co., Inc. *A report on a method for identifying potential Job Corps dropouts.* Job Corps Contract No. B99-5025. Washington, D.C.: Author, October 1970.

Reports the results of a validation study using the Biographical Information Blank (BIB) to predict length of participation in the Job Corps. Describes the development of scoring keys for different racial ethnic groups and both sexes to identify 30-day and 90-day dropouts. Recommends that enrollees be given the BIB on enrollment so those identified as potential dropouts can be given special attention and programs.

Richardson, Bellows, Henry & Co., Inc. *A study of the feasibility of predicting job tenure among Employment Service applicants through the use of biographical information.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-09-69-32. Washington, D.C.: Author, June 1971.

Findings of a research study that demonstrated the feasibility of the utilization of biographical information in the prediction of three-month and six-month employment tenure, in three cities, of 477 black disadvantaged males and 225 black disadvantaged females who had received no previous manpower training and/or counseling services and who were placed by State Employment Service offices into a varying range of manufacturing and service occupations at varying salary levels. Includes a description of the construction and testing of an initial experimental Biographical Information Blank (BIB). Describes: (1) implementation, (2) analysis and results, and (3) recommendations. Data suggest that the total solution for all persons is not better jobs and salaries; "human" characteristics and already acquired behavior patterns brought into an employment relationship must also be considered.

Riessman, F. New Careers: A workable approach to hard-core unemployment. *Personnel*, 1968, Vol. 45, No. 5, 36-41.

Based on an address presented at the American Management Association's Fourth Annual Conference on Education and Training. Discusses the problem of high turnover among hard-core workers resulting in higher training costs. To keep the worker on the job, a New Careers concept is suggested in which workers with minimum education and without training or experience can be hired for simple jobs if they are given basic training immediately as part of the job. As a support service, informal or formal group meetings of disadvantaged workers to discuss their problems are urged.

Rogers, D. J., & Silverstein, C. *Coaching in a manpower project.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-15-67-06. Chicago: YMCA Community Employment and Training Programs, 1970.

Based on experiences of the JOBS NOW Project – a multiple-component special demonstration project designed to orient and employ the disadvantaged, provide employer manpower systems to pre-selected companies, and coordinate special support programs among business, industry and social service agencies. Covers: (1) conceptual background of coaching, (2) selection of coaches, (3) training and upgrading of coaches, (4) coach supervision, (5) coach-client relationship, (6) in-company coaching hints, and (7) major recommendations, conclusions and a three-year numerical and percentage comparison of enrollment and employment.

Rosen, H. *A group orientation approach for facilitating the work adjustment of the hard-core unemployed: Final report.* Detroit, Mich.: Wayne State University, 1969.

Describes an attempt to achieve a lasting integration of hard-core unemployed Negro men in an ongoing corporate work force and to develop values in these men necessary for successful employment. Affirms that effective employment of the hard-core is dependent upon "dual acculturation": (1) the hard-core coming to identify with the values and motivations of work, and (2) the company learning to cope with the unique problems of the hard-core unemployed who become members of the work force.

Rosen, H., & Turner, J. Effectiveness of two orientation approaches in hard-core unemployed turnover and absenteeism. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1971, Vol 55, 296-301.

Report of the relative effectiveness of two supportive intervention approaches used with hard-core unemployed black hires. Effectiveness was judged in terms of both turnover and absenteeism. Rates were compared between hard-core employees in the two treatment conditions and between hard-core hires and normal hires. The university-sponsored, quasi-therapeutic orientation proved less effective than the company-sponsored orientation, which had a dynamic, free-discussion, intervention-with-supervision character.

Rosen, R. A. H. The hard-core and the puritan ethic. *Manpower*, 1970, Vol. 2, No. 1, 29-31.

Report on a series of unstructured, in-depth interviews with 49 inner city Negro men hired by a large Midwestern utility company. Interviews attempted to find out whether inner city Negroes' motivations and goals are similar to workers' in general.

Schneider, E., Feifer, I., & Tobias, R. *Industrial guidelines for undertaking a hard-core employment program. An analytic case study of the experience of an urban industrial organization.* New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., 1970.

Report concerning the development and progress of a training program for the hard-core unemployed in an urban retail department store. Study is qualitative in nature and does not present statistical data about the program, company or trainees. It is based on in-depth interviews with almost all participants of the program. Components of the program are planning, recruitment, selection and orientation, on-the-job training, training the supervisors, job-related education and counseling.

E. F. Shelley & Co., Inc. *Private industry and the disadvantaged worker.* A report prepared for The Urban Coalition. New York: Author, January 1969.

Intended to provide The Urban Coalition with an informational base with regard to reasons for (1) program success or failure, and (2) corporate decisions that affect programming or lack of it. Major findings and recommendations are based on an analysis of questionnaire responses of 224 companies with a total work force of over 8.7 million and field visits to 64 of these companies with a total work force of over 4.1 million. Includes sections on (1) methodology, (2) factors affecting the level of company commitment and (3) a survey of program components.

Sheppard, H. L. *The nature of the job problem and the role of new public service employment.* Kalamazoo, Mich.: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, January 1969.

Discusses: (1) who among the poor do and do not work and why; (2) the characteristics of the working poor (including occupations, industries in which they work and their location); (3) the variety of estimates regarding how many more jobs could be filled or created; and (4) the role of private and public employers in meeting the employment needs of the under-employed and unemployed.

Sheppard, H. L., & Belitsky, A. H. *Promoting jobfinding success for the unemployed.* Kalamazoo, Mich.: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, April 1968.

Summarizes a larger report, *The Job Hunt: Job-seeking Behavior of Unemployed Workers in a Local Economy*, by the same authors, published by the Johns Hopkins Press in 1966, which (1) studies the differences in job-seeking behavior among skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled workers, between men and women, between young and old workers; (2) analyzes the effectiveness of the various sources used by job-seekers; and (3) attempts to determine whether social-psychological factors play a role in job-seeking behavior.

Siegel, J. *The role of industry in training the hard-core unemployed.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 340-5009-000. New York: Riverside Research Institute, 1970.

Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Metropolitan Chapter, Human Factors Society, describing (1) problems that resulted from sudden emphasis being placed on industry to hire the disadvantaged in the 1960s, (2) the JOBS Program, which was initiated to solve those problems, and (3) the successes and failures of Riverside Research Institute's (RRI) JOBS Program. Emphasis is on RRI's program to provide training for 10 hard-core unemployed for one year in four vocational skills: computer peripheral equipment operators, electronics technicians, machine operators and draftsmen, and on specific job requirements, selection of trainees, program components and program evaluation.

Skill Advancement Inc. *A study of low-wage workers and their response to High Intensity Training.* Technical Memorandum RFS 200, U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. OSMP 82-34-67-10. New York: Author, July 10, 1969. 4 vols.

Includes: (1) an extensive descriptive analysis — from occupational experience to general world view — of 437 low-wage, low-skill workers and 91 first-line supervisors, based on interviews conducted on the job site at hospitals and manufacturing firms in New York City; (2) an analysis of the effect of training on employees; (3) a look into how pre-test variables might be predictive of later trainee success on the job; (4) technical appendices, including tables, tests, interview schedules and rating forms, and a summary of all information gathered. Employees and supervisors are compared with each other and among their own peer groups on the bases of education, job-search behavior, ethnic and racial differences, sex and age differences, and perceptions of employee readiness and willingness to participate in a training program.

Smith, R. L., Swack, S. D., & Uslan, S. S. *Job/behavioral analysis manual.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-05-70-05. Los Angeles: Mentec Corporation, November 1971.

One of four manuals designed to aid supervisors in training employees, particularly hard-core disadvantaged. Its specific purpose is to enable supervisors to systematically analyze jobs and define behaviors required for successful job performance. Covers (1) behavioral-skills, (2) job analysis, and (3) job restructuring. (See Arkin, et al, and Mentec Corporation for companion manuals.)

Somers, G. G. (ed.) *Retraining the unemployed*. Madison, Wis.: University of Wisconsin, 1968.

Contains studies conducted by different research investigators to evaluate retraining programs for unemployed workers, established under federal, state, municipal and union-management auspices. Studies are scattered geographically and include such areas as West Virginia, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Tennessee and Michigan. However, the various investigations were conceived, carried out and reported in a coordinated framework. The studies conclude that retraining programs for unemployed workers are sound social investments.

St. Louis University, Center for Urban Programs. *Summer youth employment guide*. MDTA Experimental and Demonstration Findings No. 10. U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 42-9-008-27. St. Louis, Mo.: Author, 1971.

Report (1) describes a general program guide for operating summer youth employment programs, and (2) summarizes summer employment activities in St. Louis, Phoenix and New Haven. Recommends early planning, early funding and a search for technical assistance from Labor Department staff.

Striner, H. E. *Toward a fundamental program for the training, employment and economic equality of the American Indian*. Kalamazoo, Mich.: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, March 1968.

Prepared for the Subcommittee on Economic Progress of the Joint Economic Committee, Congress of the United States, proposing that a bill, the Indian Resources Development Act of 1967, submitted to Congress, overlooks the need for (1) training and employment, (2) economic development, (3) education as a precondition for training, (4) attracting industry to the Indian worker, (5) creation of an Indian Development Corporation, (5) providing housing, (6) organizing effective Indian programs, and (7) dealing with the Indians without pressuring for cultural assimilation.

Teach hard-core interpersonal skills. *Employee Relations Bulletin*, Report No. 1111, September 4, 1968, 1-5.

Deals with Sandia Corporation's pre-employment program for welfare and Job Corps mothers. In addition to the standard clerical, academic and grooming skills, the women were taught interpersonal skills and attitudes. Purpose of the sub-program was to expose the women to the environment and demands of the work situation through group sessions centered on taking criticism and being aware of racial prejudices.

Tobias, R. *Fulfilling the potential of NYC-2: New directions in the vocational counseling of Neighborhood Youth Corps trainees. No. 3*. New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., July 1970.

Short outline of a vocational counseling strategy for disadvantaged youth in the Neighborhood Youth Corps-2 program. The strategy's working hypothesis is (1) counseling on the job will enhance tenure success, (2) the job payoff provides motivation for change, (3) job-related behaviors can be "taught" just like any job skills.

Tobias, R. *Teaching job-required behaviors via the systematic use of prescribed group counseling interventions: The program and its feasibility.* New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., July 1970.

Description of the Pre-Planned Training System at Mobilization for Youth, Inc., in which training and teaching are assigned clearly defined objectives, interventions to achieve the objectives, and means for evaluating the attainment of the objectives. When goals are specified in concrete behavioral terms, group counseling techniques can be used more systematically, thereby increasing their efficiency and effectiveness.

Tobias, R., Schenkman, J. G., & Reinish, H. *Pre-Planned Training System: Training the hard-core unemployed in job-required behavioral skills.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-34-69-21. New York: Mobilization for Youth, Inc., 1970.

Pre-Planned Training System (PPTS) was developed to facilitate the training of the hard-core disadvantaged in non-technical, job-required behavioral skills, previously conceptualized and treated as a "good attitude or work adjustment." This training manual includes (1) training for manpower development staff (counselors and vocational trainers) in how to use the system, and (2) program and materials for the staff to use in training the disadvantaged.

Too many U.S. workers no longer give a damn. *Newsweek*, April 24, 1972.

States that the traditional work ethic of the U.S. is disappearing, as evidenced by high absentee rates and high turnover across the nation. Pointed out are (1) the student who wants to work for just enough money to get by or to drop out, (2) the worker who resents being treated like a cog, (3) jobs that offer no diversification or choice. Suggested solutions are (1) more involvement in work, (2) a team approach to the assembly line so that workers get to do more than one job, and (3) more humane methods of management.

Training counselors for work with disadvantaged clients. *Rehabilitation Record*, 1970, Vol. 11, No. 5, 26-28.

Covers suggestions accumulated through the deliberations of a project committee, visits to community action programs, and consultation with disadvantaged people, and other authorities on poverty and deprivation. Project this report covers was designed to develop guidelines for including substantial information on disadvantaged people in the curricula of counselor education programs, and to plan national and regional conferences at which counselor-educators can consider these matters.

Travis, S. C. *The U.S. labor force: Projections to 1985.* Special Labor Force Report 119. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1970.

Sets forth Bureau of Labor Statistics projections of the growth of the labor force to more than 100 million in 1980 and 107 million in 1985, and indicates that the structure of the projected changes will alter the shape of the labor force. Supplementary tables are included.

United States R & D Corporation. *Industrial Manpower Center. The first year.* U.S. Department of Labor Contract No. 82-34-68-37. New York: Author, 1971.

Reports first year of operation of a major job readiness and job placement program, sponsored by the Bay Area Management Council, in an "urban fringe" area, Pittsburgh-Antioch, in California. Includes: (1) contractor's categories, (2) types and number of placements, (3) narratives of successful programmatic breakthroughs, and (4) descriptions of areas which have caused program difficulties. States that 66 percent of program graduates were placed in private industry jobs, that many trainees obtained their high school diplomas, and that some went on to college.

Urban Research Corporation. *Industry and day care: Report of a national conference in March 1970.* Chicago: Author, 1970.

Report of a national conference attended by 175 representatives of industry and day care establishments, including early childhood educators, day care franchisors and social welfare professionals. Examines major models of industry-related day care and discusses costs and cost-benefits. States that (1) there is a scarcity of hard data to support the supposed benefits of an industry-related day care operation: lowered rates of absenteeism and turnover, and high productivity and morale; (2) high quality child care would cost about $35 per week and could not expect to make a profit; but (3) almost all companies involved report improved recruitment and lowered turnover and absentee rates.

U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration. *Dictionary of occupational titles.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965.

A comprehensive listing of occupational areas, job clusters and specific job titles together with descriptive information about job requirements, job conditions and job functions. Many cross-references permit easy access to information.

U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration. *Manual for pretesting orientation on the purpose of testing.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970b.

Half-hour lecture-discussion technique designed to reduce anxiety and increase motivation for testing in disadvantaged individuals by telling them the purposes of testing. A narrator reads a prepared script of 23 items, each with an accompanying picture.

U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration. *Manual for the USES pretesting orientation exercises.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, June 1968.

Contains directions for administering a set of practice exercises that closely resemble the standard General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) exercises and are given with a standard GATB answer sheet. Purpose of these exercises is to enable disadvantaged clients to perform on the GATB by familiarizing them with comparable test content and giving them practice in test procedures.

U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration. *Orientation, counseling and assessment in manpower programs.* MDTA Experimental and Demonstration Findings No. 5. Washington, D.C.: Author, 1969.

Provides a portrait of culturally disadvantaged individuals who are being served by manpower programs. Educational, emotional, health, social and financial factors are identified. Examines the techniques that have been used to gather data on poverty-level urban groups and the problems encountered. Includes an outline of considerations for a short-term orientation program, drawn from findings of such programs as JOBS NOW, Project TIDE and Concentrated Employment Programs. Intended as an aid in staff discussions, self-review and in-service training to those who design and conduct orientation programs.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Workplace Standards Administration. *Day care services: Industry's involvement.* Bulletin 296. Washington, D.C.: Author, 1971.

Provides an overview of the need for services for the children of working mothers, reports on the past and present contributions of industry, discusses income tax allowances, gives examples of unique programs that suggest various ways in which industry can play a more realistic role in day care development.

U.S. Office of Economic Opportunity. *Further preliminary results of the New Jersey graduated Work Incentive Program.* OEO Pamphlet 3400-4. Washington, D.C.: Author, May 1971.

Describes an experiment that tests the impacts of an assistance system similar to the President's Welfare Reform Program, in work incentive, cost of benefits, administrative costs, health, borrowing and spending behavior, family stability, general attitudes toward work, children's school performance and social behavior, and leisure time activities. Main objective of the experiment is to determine the relationship of labor supply to the level of benefits and the tax rate on earned income. Structured to provide assistance that increases as earned income decreases and decreases as earned income increases. Unlike President's program, this experiment does not include a work requirement or day care services. Confirms that there was no evidence indicating a significant decline in weekly family earnings as a result of the income assistance program.

U.S. Training and Employment Service. *Handbook for analyzing jobs.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, 1972.

Presents new approach and structured procedure for obtaining and recording job analysis, through which current and comprehensive information about job and worker requirements can be acquired for programs concerned with the development and utilization of manpower potential. Some major areas of use are recruitment and placement, better utilization of workers, job restructuring, vocational counseling, training, performance evaluation, and plant safety. Covers: (1) job analysis: what it is and its uses, (2) concepts and principles in job analysis, (3) procedures for conducting a job analysis study in an establishment, (4) the staffing schedule, (5) the job analysis schedule, (6) organization and process flow charts, (7) the narrative report, and (8) verification of job analysis.

U.S. Training and Employment Service, & New Jersey State Employment Service. *Illustrations for pretesting orientation on the purpose of testing.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, July 1970.

Collection of illustrations and phrases to go with them, demonstrating the purpose of testing, how to find a job, and what employers are looking for. One, for example, shows a Sherlock Holmes figure with a magnifying glass, and the copy reads: How do you find a good job?

Wikstrom, W. S. *Managing at the foreman's level.* Personnel Policy Study No. 205. New York: The Conference Board, 1967.

Focuses on organizational problems that have arisen in connection with the job of the foreman and the solutions developed in four companies: the Kimberly-Clark Corp., the Pillsbury Co., the Air Preheater Co., and Abrogast and Bastian, Inc. Discusses changes in the traditional role of the foreman that have occurred as organizations have grown more complex. Work of specialists now impinges on decision areas formerly left to the foreman. Examines factors that influence the degree to which authority to coordinate the specialists' recommendations can be [illegible] at the level of immediate supervision. Case studies illustrate varying structures for providing management coordination that have emerged in four production organizations of different size, product lines and technology.

Wikstrom, W. S. *Manpower planning: Evolving systems.* New York: The Conference Board, 1971.

Discusses a new system in manpower planning that employs a process intended to assure an organization that it will have the proper number of qualified and motivated employees in its work force at some specified future time to carry on the work that will then have to be done. Eighty-four companies contributed data concerning the projection of manpower supply and demand, the projection of future manpower requirements, and the current systems of manpower planning.

"Y" Manpower Project. *Employing the low-skilled disadvantaged worker: A guide for managers.* Chicago: "Y" Manpower Program, March 1971.

Product of employer conferences held during the summer and fall of 1970 that brought 60 middle managers from the Chicago area together to discuss practical ways of keeping low-skilled employees on the job. Intended as a handbook for company personnel interested in aiding their disadvantaged employees.

Zimpel, L. (ed.) *The disadvantaged worker: Readings on developing minority manpower.* Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1971.

Collection of 40 readings, which undertakes to bring together some of the lessons learned over the past few years about how to best fit the disadvantaged jobless into the country's employment pattern. Represents a variety of approaches to hiring, training and upgrading but discusses some procedures in common: (1) aggressive, outside-the-office recruiting, (2) elimination of standardized pre-job tests, and (3) increased support services.

Zimpel, L., & Panger, D. *Business and the hard-core unemployed: A management guide to hiring, training and motivating minority workers.* New York: Frederick Fell, Inc., 1970.

Management guide to hiring, training and motivating minority workers. Suggests and recommends how to recruit, select, train and upgrade minority group workers and emphasizes the role foremen and supervisory personnel play in employment programs. The appendices include listings of (1) techniques used in employing the hard-core in industry, (2) training centers for unskilled workers throughout the nation, and (3) where to get information about government contracts for hard-core training programs.

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